R842-09 ERIC REPORT RESUME

ED 010 168 1-30-67 24 (REV)

DEVELOPING PROCEDURES FOR THE INSERVICE EDUCATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

EDMONDS, FRED * AND OTHERS
IHG29014 UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY, COLL. OF ED., LEXINGTON

CRP-E-026
BR-5-0640
- -66
EDRS PRICE MF-$0.27 HC-$6.76 169P.

ADMINISTRATOR ATTITUDES, ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS, *SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, *INSERVICE PROGRAMS, *RURAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS, COLLEGE PROGRAMS, CULTURALLY DISADVANTAGED, *DEPRESSED AREAS (GEOGRAPHIC), *ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL, ON THE JOB TRAINING, APPALACHIA, LEXINGTON, KENTUCKY

ON-THE-JOB INSERVICE EDUCATION FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS WAS INVESTIGATED IN FOUR RURAL, CULTURALLY DEPRIVED, AND ECONOMICALLY DEPRESSED SCHOOL DISTRICTS. THE INVESTIGATIONS CONSISTED OF A TEAM OF SPECIALISTS IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, CURRICULUM, SUPERVISION, AND INSERVICE EDUCATION WORKING WITH TEAMS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS. ONE OBJECTIVE WAS TO DETERMINE THE EXTENT OF MODIFIED PERFORMANCE WHEN PARTICIPATING ADMINISTRATORS WERE HELPED (1) TO CONCEPTUALIZE THEIR ADMINISTRATIVE JOBS, (2) TO CLARIFY THEIR ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATIONS, (3) TO IDENTIFY THEIR SCHOOL PROBLEMS, (4) TO FORMULATE SOLUTIONS FOR THEIR SCHOOL PROBLEMS, AND (5) TO EVALUATE CONSEQUENCES OF THEIR ADMINISTRATIVE PERFORMANCE. ANOTHER OBJECTIVE WAS TO EXPERIMENT WITH FIELD WORK AS A PART OF THE ADVANCED PREPARATION OF PROMISING YOUNG ADMINISTRATORS BY INCLUDING THEM AS MEMBERS OF THE COLLEGE INTERDISCIPLINARY TEAM. DATA ON THE CONCEPTS, PROCEDURES, PERFORMANCES, AND INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS ASSOCIATED WITH 64 ADMINISTRATORS WERE COLLECTED BY QUESTIONNAIRES, Q-SORTS, AND STAFF OBSERVATIONS. RESULTS SHOWED THAT THE ADMINISTRATORS DID REFORMULATE THEIR JOB CONCEPTS, REDEFINE THEIR ROLES, AND MODIFY THEIR CONCEPTS OF THEIR SCHOOL S ULTIMATE PURPOSES. (JM)

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE
Office of Education
This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated do not necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

DEVELOPING PROCEDURES FOR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

COOPERATIVE RESEARCH PROJECT NO. E-026

FRED EDMONDS, ASSOCIATE DIRECTOR
JAMES B. KINCHELOE, ASSOCIATE DIRECTOR
JAMES R. OGLETREE, DIRECTOR

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY
LEXINGTON, KENTUCKY

1966

ED010168

THE RESEARCH REPORTED HEREIN WAS SUPPORTED BY THE COOPERATIVE RESEARCH PROGRAM OF THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE

FOREWORD

This report reflects the major outcomes of an eighteen month pilot project which sought to develop procedures for improving the quality and scope of university assistance in the in-service education of practicing school administrators. In effect the project was predicated on the assumption that a teacher education institution has a responsibility for in-service as well as pre-service professional education, that in-service education cannot be divorced from the totality of teacher education, and that improved procedures can be developed for meeting the in-service education responsibilities. It was assumed further that the procedures developed during this project would have replicative value in other environments with somewhat similar conditions.

Of course, the ultimate results of such an endeavor are dependent upon the quality and depth of participation of those involved in the effort. In this regard we acknowledge the eager, cooperative, and meaningful participation of the more than seventy school administrators who gave unstintingly of themselves to make the project succeed. The project staff is deeply appreciative of the efforts of these administrators. They offered themselves as willing subjects in the experimentation, made available their schools as laboratories, and provided encouragement and stimulation throughout the duration of the project. We shall forever be grateful for this participation.

The untimely death of Dr. Louis Swanson, an invaluable staff member, affected the final six months of the project and the ultimate outcome of the entire effort. His unusual skill in working with people, his understanding of human motivation, and his remarkable power of empathy with others were and are sorely missed. Because this was his last major professional contribution it is only fitting that we dedicate this report to him.

A report of this kind can be examined superficially and reflect only the objective results as presented on the written page. However, we urge the reader to interpolate these printed words and statistics to catch the flavor of human interaction and effort striving to find practical answers to challenging problems. We trust above all that what we have done will be provocative stimuli for others who are grasping for handles in this complex arena.

Fred Edmonds
James B. Kincheloe
James R. Ogletree

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

I. INTRODUCTION

Background 1
The Problem and Its Rationale 1
Objectives 4
Factors to Be Evaluated 5
Related Research 6
Overview of Major Activities by Phases 10
  Phase I (July 1 - August 31, 1964) 10
  Phase II (September 1, 1964 - May 31, 1965) 11
  Phase III (June 1 - August 30, 1965) 13
  Phase IV (September 1 - December 31, 1965) 13
The Remainder of the Report 14

II. THE SETTING OF THE STUDY

General Characteristics of the School Communities 16
General Characteristics of the School Systems 22
General Characteristics of the Administrative Staffs 31
Operational Characteristics of the Administrative Staff 34
  Local Orientation 34
  Non-Formal Organization 36
  Emphasis Upon Maintenance 40
  Emphasis Upon Management 44
  Neglect of Curriculum Development 47
  Supporting Personnel Practices 49
Summary 52

III. IN SERVICE EDUCATION PROCEDURES

Developing The Staff as a Team 54
  Paradigm of School Administration 58
    Area I: Instructional Program 58
    Area II: School Organization 58
    Area III: Staff Personnel 59
    Area IV: Community Relations 59
    Area V: Management 59
  Using the Interdisciplinary Consultants 61
  Using Graduate Research Associates 62
Initiating The Project 63
  Selection of the Districts 63
  Negotiation for Participation 64
  Orientation and Initiation Conference 65
Using the Local School Districts as Learning Laboratories 66
Bi-Weekly Working Seminars 67

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

Chapter Page

Using Problem-Solving as a Learning Vehicle 68
  Using Problem Identification 69
  Formulating Statements of Sub-Problems 71
  Securing Information About a Problem 73
  Formulating Plans of Action 76
  Assigning Responsibilities 79
  Assessing Consequences of Actions Taken 79
Working With Participants in Clinics and Conferences 80
  Orientation Conference 80
  Clinic on School Administration 81
  Progress Conferences 82
  Final Conference 82
  Conferences - Clinics in Local Districts 83
Summary 84

IV. CHANGES DURING THE PROJECT

Changes in Administrator's Job Concepts 87
  The Job Description Form 88
  Problems Identification Instrument 97
  Leadership Opinion Questionnaire 104
  Job Concepts As Derived From the Leadership Q-Sort 109
  Job Concepts Derived From the Purposes of Education Q-Sort 116
  Job Concepts As Derived From Staff Observations 119
Changes in Administrative Procedures 124
  Instructional Program Procedures 125
  School Organization Procedures 126
  Personnel Procedures 128
  Community Relations Procedures 129
  Management Procedures 130
Changes in District Instructional Programs 130
Summary 135

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

General Conclusions 138
Conclusions Concerning Changes in Administrator's Concepts and Performance 140
Conclusions Concerning Staff Procedures 142
Recommendations 145

APPENDIX

A - Problems Identification Instrument 148
B - Job Description Form 149
C - Leadership Q-Sort 150
D - Purposes of Education Q-Sort 153
E - Interview Guide 156

LIST OF TABLES BY CHAPTER

CHAPTER II. THE SETTING OF THE STUDY

Table		Page
1.	Selected Population Characteristics	17
2.	Numbers of Workers in Selected Occupational Categories, 1960	20
3.	Number and Enrollment of Schools by Size, 1964-65	23
4.	Enrollment in Elementary (Grades 1-8) and High School (Grades 9-12) 1964-65	25
5.	Comparison of Ninth Grade Enrollment and High School Graduates Four Years Later	25
6.	Per Cent Change in Enrollment, 1954-55--1964-65	26
7.	Current and Total Expense Per Pupil ADA, 1963-64	27
8.	Average Salaries of Classroom Teachers, 1964-65	28
9.	Per Cent of Receipt By Source, 1963-64	28
10.	Administrative Positions, 1964-65	32
11.	Selected Characteristics of Administrators	33

CHAPTER IV. CHANGES DURING THE PROJECT

Table		Page
1.	Job Tasks As Derived From The Job Description Form For Sixteen Administrators In District 1.	89
2.	Job Tasks As Derived From The Job Description Form Twenty-One Administrators In District 2	90
3.	Job Tasks As Derived From The Job Description Form For Nineteen Administrators In District 3	91
4.	Job Tasks As Derived From The Job Description Form For Eight Administrators In District 4	92
5.	Job Tasks As Derived From The Job Description Form For Sixty-Four Administrators In All Districts	93
6.	Indication Of The Significance Of Differences Between The Pre-Test And The Post-Test For Each School District And The Total Number Of Administrators	94
7.	Problems Identified Via The Problems Identification Instrument For Sixty-Three Administrators In All Districts	98
8.	Problems Identified With The Problems Identification Instrument Of Sixteen Administrators In District 1	100
9.	Problems Identified With The Problems Identification Instrument For Twenty-One Administrators In District 2	101
10.	Problems Identified With The Problems Identification Instrument For Eighteen Administrators In District 3	102
11.	Problems Identified With The Problems Identification Instrument For Eight Administrators In District 4	103
12.	Percentiles For Mean Scores For Administrators In Each District And The Total Group For The Structure	

LIST OF TABLES BY CHAPTER - continued -

Chapter Page

And Consideration Scores Of The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire For Pre and Post-Testing 105
13. Means, Standard Deviations, Significance Of Mean Differences, And Correlations For Structure Score Of The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire For Administrators In Each District And For Total Group 106
14. Means, Standard Deviations, Significance Of Mean Differences, And Correlations For The Consideration Score Of The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire For Administrators In Each District And Total Group 107
15. Pre To Post Changes, By District Groups, In Concepts Of Self, Ideal, And The Ordinary Person As Derived From The Leadership Q-Sort 111
16. Pre To Post Changes In Interrelationships Of Perceptions Of Self, Ideal, And The Ordinary Person As Derived From The Leadership Q-Sort-(District Composites). 113
17. Pre To Post Changes, By Position Groups, In Perceptions Of Self, Ideal, And The Ordinary Person As Derived From The Leadership Q-Sort 115
18. Pre To Post Changes In Perceptions Of Educational Purposes As Derived From The Purposes Of Education Q-Sort--(District Composites) 117
19. Pre To Post Changes In Perceptions Of Educational Purposes, By Position Groups, As Derived From The Purposes Of Education Q-Sort 118

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

This developmental project, Contract E-026, entitled Developing Procedures for the In-Service Education of School Administrators has been an extension of the work of the project staff covering a seven-year period. During this time, the staff's experiences validated the need for a more systematic effort to extend its own knowledge, experience and skill in this area. Subsequently, the proposal for this project was submitted and ultimately approved for the period July 7, 1964 through December 31, 1965.

The Problem and Its Rationale

As a developmental activity, this project sought to develop procedures for extending the educational horizons and improving the performance of school administrators practicing in four selected rural, culturally deprived and economically depressed areas by: (1) using the administrators' school districts as laboratories in which greater competency in school administration could be developed, and (2) using a college team of "specialists" to work with teams of local school district administrators on-the-job to: (a) analyze their present administrative practices, (b) identify their most pressing inadequacies, (c) acquire the knowledge and skills for planning and initiating needed administrative modifications and (d) develop and employ procedures for evaluating the consequences of such modifications.

Undergirding the above statement of the problem was the assumption that enterprises seldom exceed the vision, knowledge and/or skills of their leaders, and that today's need for exceptional leadership in the educational enterprise is surpassed by no other. Consequently, the extension of existing knowledge in the area of in-service education of practicing administrators should rank exceedingly high on any list of factors critical to the improvement of public education.

Justification of the need for extension of such knowledge eminates from several sources. First, is the fact that the convergent forces of technological change, societal expectations and national needs focus full attention upon education as the hope for national social, economic, and political survival. Adequate response to such attention necessitates radical modifications of the school as a social institution and of the instructional programs schools provide. Such modifications concomitantly necessitate improvement in the performance of the professional staffs responsible for planning, administering and implementing these new modified institutions.

Already practicing administrators must deal in some way with current efforts: (a) to streamline various bodies of knowledge to be used as curriculum content, (b) to initiate experimental or pilot programs in such areas as programmed instruction, educational materials, media and teaching procedures, (c) to increase the competencies and supply of personnel in specialized areas such as foreign languages, mathematics and science; and (d) to extend knowledge of the educational process through basic and applied research.

To be sure, societal expectations and current efforts to modify instructional programs are affecting the educational enterprise. However, to increase or enhance such modifications requires alterations in the vision, knowledge and skills of school administrators and supervisors. The studies of Berthold, Collins, Ebey, Mark and Skogsberg all conclude that the administrator, by virtue of the nature of his position and the legal setting in which he functions, is the most significant single factor in influencing modifications, adaptations and innovations in school programs.[1]

The relatively low replacement ratio among currently practicing administrators further evidence a need for extending current knowledge regarding their in-service education. If, as several estimates indicate, the typical administrator is duly "certified" and is in his mid-forties, he probably will continue as an administrator for approximately twenty years with no legal requirements to advance his current levels of knowledge or competencies. Subsequently, his role in initiating and/or facilitating innovation would tend to be limited.

Finally, innovations and modifications seem also to be influenced by the career routes of administrators. Carlson's study of "insiders" and "outsiders" indicates that change or innovations seldom occur--or are less likely to occur--in those districts where two consecutive superintendents are appointed from within that district.[2] Promotion of more than one insider tends to result in stagnation for even the highly innovative school districts. Yet, conditions in many rural, culturally deprived and economically depressed areas often preclude the appointment of "outsiders" as superintendents. For example, practically all the current administrators in Eastern Kentucky are indigenous to that region if not to the districts in which they practice. Consequently, instructional innovations in that area have long been stabilized.

---

[1] Don H. Ross (editor), Administration for Adaptability, Vol. II, Metropolitan School Study Council, New York, New York, 1951, pp. 90-105.

[2] Richard Carlson, "Succession and Performance Among School Superintendents," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 6, No. 2, Sept., 1961.

This is but to say that the extension of current knowledge of the in-service education of school administration seems an essential ingredient for devising new procedures for accelerating educational innovations and modification in response to societal demands that quality and excellence become handmaidens to quantity and universality in its public schools. For as Engleman stated, "Nothing grows obsolete more rapidly than public education under the leadership of an administrator grown stale or unaware of the critical issues and changing demands on the schools."[3]

Objectives

This developmental project deviated from the typical in-service education activity in that it sought:

I. To develop new understandings about in-service education for school administrators by use of:

  A. A college instructional team, supported by consultants from anthropology, political science, psychology, and sociology, and teams of school administrators from local school districts.

  B. Four selected school districts in Eastern Kentucky as laboratories for developing both the content and procedures.

II. To determine the extent to which administrators in the four selected rural, economically depressed and culturally deprived districts modify their performance by attempting to help them:

  A. Conceptualize their administrative job

  B. Clarify their administrative organization

  C. Identify their school problems

---

[3] Finis E. Engleman, "A School for Administrators", The School Administrator, 19:2 December 1961.

D. Formulate solutions for their school problems

E. Evaluate results of their administrative performance

III. To experiment with field work as a part of the advanced preparation of promising young administrators by including them as members of the college interdisciplinary team.

Factors to be Evaluated

A project of this type necessitated a close personal relationship between its staff and the participants. As participant - observer innovators such a staff collected data far in excess of the purposes of the project itself. Therefore, the researchers held themselves in check so that their field reports were germane to the purposes of their undertaking. Consequently, in keeping with the above stated purposes, data were collected so that the following factors could be determined:

1. Changes in individual and/or teams': (a) Concepts of their jobs, (b) ability to identify administrative problems, (c) ability to acquire competencies needed to resolve administrative problems, and (d) ability to develop and apply procedures for improving their performance as administrators.
2. Changes in the administrative procedures at both the district and individual school levels.
3. Changes in the instructional programs initiated during this project.
4. Procedures used by the college team in determining and developing procedures for use in each school district.
5. Procedures used by the college team in its efforts to provide in-service experiences for individuals and teams in the participating districts.

Related Research

Specific studies in the area of in-service education of school leaders, administrators, are exceedingly limited. Possibly it is symptomatic of much of education that while the body of literature in this field is rapidly expanding, most of it is addressed to: (a) a recognition of the need for administrators to continue their development after beginning their practice, (b) a reporting of new or current practice, or (c) a projection of the need for new innovations in this field.

For example, Hollis Moore's thought provoking Studies in School Administration identifies eight "innovations" in the in-service education of administrators.[4] These included: (1) intervisitations, (2) clinics, (3) workshops, and conferences using case studies, (4) pilot centers for in-service education of staff on the role of the administrator in relation to staff, (5) conferences using such techniques as "role playing", "demonstrations", "sociodrama" and "brainstorming", (6) study groups to engage in joint research (in this instance teachers were involved in determining "What is the status of our instructional program?"), (7) state departments of education assigning personnel to work with administrators and study groups, and (8) new instruments of communication.

Illustrative of the dearth of research in this area, Moore cited some twenty-six references specifically related to in-service education of administrators. Of these only one[5] alluded to determining the effects in-service education had on administrators. It, too, proposed research procedures rather than the consequences of such procedures.

---

[4] Hollis A. Moore Jr., Studies in School Administration, American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D.C., 1957.

[5] Fred C. Ayers, "Five Research Procedures for Determining the Value of In-Service Training for Administrators", The Nation's Schools, June, 1951.

The awareness of the need for the development of more adequate in-service education programs is further illustrated by other publications.[6,7,8,9]

This expanding body of literature also reflects scattered attempts to use college consultants as specialists in providing assistance to school administrators.[10,11,12,13] Of these only MacKenzie and Corey's Instructional Leadership, allude to the development and use of a college team in using a local school district as a laboratory and reports and evaluation of the procedures employed by these college personnel.

---

[6] American Association of School Administrators, Professional Administrators for America's Schools, Thirty-eighth Yearbook. (Washington: The Association), 1960.

[7] Jack Culbertson and Stephen Hencley, Preparing Administrators: New Perspectives (Columbus: The University Council for Educational Administrators, 1962)

[8] American Association of School Administrators, Inservice Education for School Administrators, Forty-first Yearbook. (Washington: The Association), 1963.

[9] F.F. Beach and Stanley Ratliff, "The School Administrator's Need for Inservice Education," School Life (March, 1963)

[10] G.N. Mackenzie, S.M. Corey and Associates, Instructional Leadership (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University), 1954.

[11] Lyle Hanna, "Special Service for Small School Systems," American School Board Journal, 145:8, July, 1962.

[12] Benjamin Willis, "Continuing Education for Present Administrators," in Jack A. Culbertson and Stephen Hencley (eds.) Preparing Administrators: New Perspectives (Columbus: University Council for Educational Administration), 1962.

[13] Rudolph Schwartz, "A Void in Leadership," Clearing House, 36:105-7, (October, 1961)

Thus the related literature seems to express more of an awareness and renewed interest in the in-service education of administrators than actual research in the area. The reported "current practices" engaged in by college staffs could reflect a lack of knowledge, skill and/or experiences in other types of activities. For example, it seems significant that the literature is meager in its reporting of the effectiveness of such "current practices" and even less abundant in its description of the specific procedures used.

More appropriate to the purposes of this project seems to be the literature produced from experimentation at the University of Kentucky, 1960-64 which validates the need for college staffs to extend their own knowledges and skills in assisting practicing administrators to use their own problems as learning opportunities for improving their procedures.

The publication, "Program of Experimentation in Preparing Educational Supervisors", concluded that:

"(1) Educational Programs in public schools improve more rapidly and more permanently when their leaders (superintendents, principals, and supervisors) receive part of their graduate training as they serve in their official positions in local school districts than when they are provided preparational experiences in college classrooms, periodic seminars or conferences, (2) Greater improvements in the educational opportunities provided for children result when university (college) staff members work on real problems with the team of local school leaders in that district rather than when they work with these same leaders individually in typically organized classes, conferences, or seminars. (3) Contributions of college personnel to the professional development of school leaders on-the-job is greater when such persons themselves work as a team with local school leadership teams, on real problems in those districts than when they work as individuals with the same leaders in conferences, seminars, general workshops or college classes. (4) College personnel themselves grow more rapidly in their own understandings, insights and instructional effectiveness by working as teams with leadership teams in local districts than by working as individuals with local school leaders in workshops, conferences, seminars or graduate classes."[14]

This literature also validates the futility of sporadic efforts to provide in-service education for only one or two administrators in a district where the problems are of such a nature as to require the concerted efforts of all a school district's official leaders. Further, from this experimentation and subsequent experiences, the necessity for college consultants working in the field on specific problems develop new skills for facilitating was supported by the data.[14,15,16] The reality of the environment in which learning is to occur was found to give the public school setting obvious advantages for developing in-service educational experiences for both administrators and college consultants.

---

[14] J.R. Ogletree, P.W. Wear, Jeanette Molloy and Fred Edmonds, "Program of Experimentation in Preparing Educational Supervisors," Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service (Lexington: University of Kentucky), June, 1962.

[15] J.R. Ogletree, P.W. Wear and Fred Edmonds, "Teacher Education in Service: The Function of the General Supervisor," Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service (Lexington: University of Kentucky), December, 1962.

[16] J.R. Ogletree, Fred Edmonds and P.W. Wear, "Preparing Educational Supervisors," Educational Leadership Vol. 20, No. 3, (Washington: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development), December, 1962.

In brief, the related literature while expanding in quality primarily reports descriptions of practices or offers further recognition of the need and/or suggestions for meeting such needs related to the in-service education of school administrators.

The research in the area of procedures for in-service education supported the basic theses of this developmental project and provided the basic directions for its implementation.

Overview of Major Activities by Phases

The initial proposal and its subsequent revision identified certain activities to be included in the project and established a schedule for these activities. Included were certain procedures and commitments which will be referred to in Chapter III (which treats procedures more fully) as "predetermined procedures". To provide an overview of the entire project, this phased schedule of major predetermined activities follows:

Phase I (July 1 - August 31, 1964)

The major focus of this part of the project was that of initiating the project. During this two month period, the project staff:

A. Refined and applied criteria to the forty-four Eastern Kentucky counties for the identification of those most appropriate for this project.

B. Negotiated with four local boards of education and their administrators for the districts' participation.

C. Recruited three graduate research assistants from Eastern Kentucky Schools.

D. Assembled and developed initial data collecting instruments to be used.[17]

E. Planned and conducted a two-day orientation-initiation conference for all participants to:

1. Clarify the project's purposes and the participants' roles and to communicate the project's initial procedures.
2. Collect the initial data.
3. Assign a staff member to each district as liaison person.
4. Plan for initial field work.

F. Assigned staff who initiated work in each district.

Phase II (September 1, 1964 - May 31, 1965)

This phase included three major types of activities: (1) Bi-weekly, half day, working seminars for each district's team, (2) individual assistance, on-the-job, for each participant by the college team and (3) clinic sessions based upon needs commonly agreed to by participants in all four districts. Each activity was implemented through procedures by which each local team:

A. Identified their administrative problems including those having to do with classroom instruction, in-service teacher education (supervision), community relations and administrative responsibilities and competencies.

---

[17] Instruments used appear as follows: Problems Identification Instrument (Appendix A), Job Description Form (Appendix B), Leadership Q-Sort (Appendix C), Purposes of Education Q-Sort (Appendix D), and Interview Guide (Appendix E). One instrument, The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, is published by Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois.

B. Formulated and implemented plans of action to attack problems including concerted team and individual effort.

C. Evaluated administrative performance in implementing problem-attack plans.

D. Assessed changes or innovations occuring as a consequence of administrative performance.

The bi-weekly working seminars involved all members of each local district's team, one or more staff members, graduate assistants and consultants as needed. These seminars were used to assist the team members use their problems as avenues through which to gain greater understandings and skills in administration and to help the local administrators develop into a leadership team for concerted attack on recognized problems.

The clinics involved all participants in day, or day-and-a-half sessions to work together on problems identified as common to each district. Equally, the clinics were used to build identification with the project.

Individual staff members had been assigned earlier to each district and each of these provided or secured specialized help required by individual members of that district's team. In effect, this constituted a form of internship for each team member with the ratio of approximately one staff member to fifteen interns. This arrangement provided close contact between the staff and individual team members, gave the staff access to and involvement in the entire school program and permitted close coordination between the district team's activities and the work of each participant in relation to his specific job.

Participant-observer records were maintained for each field activity including records of the staff procedures employed at each point.

Phase III (June 1 - August 30, 1965)

During this intervening summer period, many of the local administrators were not on the job. Consequently, the staff's activities in the field were somewhat reduced. However, the staff:

1. Maintained periodic contact with each participating school district as its team worked through the summer months.
2. Assisted local teams in planning, initiating and/or evaluating innovations on specific projects such as Headstart.
3. Conducted a two-day, pre-school clinic with each participating team to validate certain data, to analyze current status and to plan for 1965-66.
4. Initiated procedures for a gradual withdrawal from intensive involvement in each district's affairs.
5. Codified and analyzed certain data.
6. Collected additional data.

Phase IV (September 1 - December 31, 1965)

While not in the initial proposal, this final phase was added primarily to secure and validate additional data and to complete a gradual withdrawal of the staff's intensive involvement in their four local districts. The staff:

A. Maintained contact with local school district's teams on a decreasingly intensive basis so that withdrawal in the context of this project was completed by December 31, 1965.

B. Completed data collection, analysis validation which included a conference of all participants.

C. Wrote first draft of this report.

D. Finalized this report.

The Remainder of the Report

This introductory Chapter has sought to establish a base from which the remainder of this report is made. Ths project's background, rationale objectives, factors to be evaluated, related literature and organizational structure have all been cited.

Chapter II will analyze and describe those major conditions operative within the districts at the beginning of the Project. As a benchmark, this section specifies the initial field factors which conditioned both the procedures developed and the subsequent results.

The procedures, both those used for the research and those developed and used for the in-service education of the participants are identified, described and discussed in Chapter III.

Chapter IV sets forth the project results; i.e., here are reported those changes which occurred during the project. The data and the procedures for treating them are presented along with their interpretations in terms of changes within participants, changes in administrative performance and changes in the districts' operation.

The report concludes with Chapter V in which conclusions are stated and discussed not only for their import to this Project but also for their implications for in-service education of school administrators in other but similar situations. This chapter concludes with recommendations for further work in this area which is significantly related to the improvement of education.

To the report is attached an abbreviated appendix containing only copies of selected instruments used in the project. It is regretable that some of the more interesting data (particularly the observer-participants field reports) were considered too bulky to be included. However, all raw and intermediate data remain on file and are available for further use.

CHAPTER II

THE SETTING OF THE STUDY

The effectiveness and appropriateness of procedures for the in-service education of administrators are to a major extent controlled by the environmental conditions in which such administrators practice. This project staff found it necessary to become informed about and sensitive to such conditions in order to function in these settings. Consequently the descriptions of the procedures described in Chapter III can best be understood in relation to the settings in which they were developed.

This chapter presents general information about the communities, the schools and the administrators of the study. Additionally, an attempt is made to describe the major operational characteristics of the administrative staffs. It should be noted that these generalized descriptions probably apply to most school districts of rural, economically deprived character. Futhermore, it is noted that these districts differ from each other in many respects. An effort has been made to cover only those characteristics which are common among the four districts or to point out exceptions where obvious differences exist. This information should provide the reader with a general picture of the operation of these school systems as the study began.

The chapter is divided into four major divisions: General Characteristics of the School Communities, General Characteristics of the School Systems, General Characteristics of the Administrative Staffs and Operational Characteristics of the Administrative Staffs.

General Characteristics of the School Communities[1]

The four county school systems in this study are located in the mountainous area of Southeastern Kentucky. This area, part of the Cumberland Plateau, is characterized by low mountains and high ridges between narrow valleys. These landforms divide the counties into isolated segments. Poor dirt roads lead into the hollows, and narrow, winding hard-surfaced roads are usually found in the valleys.

The counties vary in size from 339 square miles in County 3 to 474 square miles in County 2. Much of the land area in all four counties is covered with forest -- mostly second growth and scrub timber. For example, 89.4 per cent of County 1 is forest area.

Warm to cool weather prevails in this area with only short periods of extreme heat and cold. Average annual temperature is about 56° and winter temperatures range from 32° to 42° while the mid-summer average is 74°. Annual rainfall averages 52 inches.

The natural beauty of the area is marred by the ravages of coal mining, particularly strip-mining. Great scars on the mountains and the clogged, polluted streams bear testimony of the effects of mining.

As is shown in Table 1 on the following page, a total of 97,200 people lived in these four counties in 1960. County 1, with 35,336 residents, was the largest and County 4, with a population of 11,056, was the smallest. The residence of the majority of the people served by the four school systems of this study was classified by the Census Bureau as

---

[1] Data on community characteristics unless otherwise indicated have been collected from records compiled in the county superintendents' offices.

TABLE 1

SELECTED POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS[2]

County	1	2	3	4
1960 Total Population	35,336	20,748	30,102	11,056
1960 Per Cent Urban Population	44.7	0.0	10.6	0.0
1960 Per Cent Rural-Farm Population	2.8	28.9	3.1	56.8
Per Cent Change in Population 1950-1960	-25.8	-10.2	-23.8	-18.8
1960 Median of School Completed	7.6	7.0	8.0	8.2
1960 Per Cent of Population 25 yrs. and over with less than 5 yrs. schooling	28.5	33.7	23.1	19.1
1960 Per Cent non-white Population	3.6	2.2	2.4	0.1
1960 Median Family Income	$2,443	$1,833	$2,615	$1,976
1960 Per Cent of families with less than $3000	59.0	73.0	55.2	67.4
1960 Per Cent of families with incomes more than $10,000	3.3	2.4	4.3	1.4

---

[2] Data adapted from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1960 County and City Data Book, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1962.)

rural non-farm. Two of the counties, 2 and 4, had no urban population while 3 had 10.6 per cent and 1 had 44.7 per cent. However, most of the urban residents of these two counties were served by three independent city school systems not included in the study. Essentially then, practically all of the patrons of the school systems in this study had rural residences. Only in one county, 4, were as many as half of these rural people living on farms -- 56.8 per cent. Percentages of population classified as rural-farm of the other counties were 2 -- 28.9, 3 -- 3.1, and 1 -- 2.8.

The reasons for the small number of rural-farm population are obvious. The inherent fertility of the soil is very low and rapid run-off of water creates problems of land utilization. The land suitable for cultivation is a very small part of the total area and lies along the streams or at the base of hills. The larger and relatively more prosperous communities are located in the valleys while many smaller communities are found on the hillsides and in the isolated hollows.

Communication and transportation across the ridges from valley to valley and hollow to hollow are difficult. Each community then tends to become self-sufficient. Frequently each has a post office, a general store, a gasoline station or two, a church, a school and possibly a used car lot. These may be strung out along a winding road.

Housing is relatively poor. Unpainted structures of one, two and three rooms house large numbers of families. It is estimated in one of the counties that more than 75 per cent of the houses are sub-standard.

The population of all of these counties is rapidly declining. From 1950 to 1960, County 1 lost 25.8 per cent, County 3 lost 23.8 per cent, County

4 lost 18.8 per cent and County 2, 10.2 per cent. The out-migration is generally to the larger urban centers of the midwest where employment opportunities are greater.

The population of these counties is predominantly white, native-born. The 1960 census reveals that the range of non-white population was from a low of 0.1 per cent in County 4 to high of 3.6 per cent in County 1. About 90 per cent of the residents of the four counties were born in Kentucky, ranging from 81.0 per cent in County 1 to 97.1 per cent in County 2.

The educational level of the people of all of these counties is low. Again, 1960 data shows that the median years of school completed ranged from a low of 7.0 in County 2 to a high of 8.2 in County 4. In County 2, over one-third of the persons 25 years old and over had never attended school or had completed less than 5 years. Comparable percentages for the other counties were: 1 -- 28.5, 3 --23.1, and 4 -- 19.1. In each county, a very small percentage of persons 25 years and over were college graduates. Another illustration of the low educational level is armed service rejections in County 1. There, from 1960 to 1964, 768 men were called for pre-induction examinations. Of these, 576 men failed due to mental deficiencies and 91 failed due to physical deficiencies -- giving a rejection rate in this four year period of 87 per cent.

The population of these four counties is also characterized by low income. In 1960, unemployment rates in all counties except 4 were above 10 per cent. Family income was less than half the national average, and much lower than the average family income in Kentucky. The range among the counties was from a low of $1833 in 2 to $2615 in 3. More than half the families in all the counties had incomes of less than $3000 per year, ranging from 55.2 per cent in County 3 to 73.0 per cent in County 2. One-third or more of the families in County 1 and County 2 were on some form of public assistance. The percentage of families with incomes over $10,000 was very low, ranging from 1.4 in 4 to 4.3 in 3.

Traditionally these are coal producing counties. Due to mechanization in the past twenty years, employment in this industry has sharply declined. For example, in County 1 in 1950, 2914 persons were employed in mining. By 1962, this had declined to 608 persons and is continuing to decline. However, the mineral industries were still the largest group of employers for the four counties combined, being first in 2 and 3 and third largest in 1. Wholesale and retail trade was the second largest group of employers for the combined four counties and was first in County 4 and second in County 2. Manfacturing was of especially high rank only in County 1 where it was second. Manufacturing was fourth in the three other counties. These statistics are displayed in Table 2.

TABLE 2

NUMBER OF WORKERS IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, 1960[3]

County	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Wholesale and Retail Trade	Minerals	Education
1	151	1,070	1,483	688	472
2	686	293	537	1,149	247
3	77	218	826	2,323	435
4	1,148	156	332	54	210
Total	2,062	1,737	3,178	4,214	1,364

[3] Ibid.

Table II indicates that education which was the fifth largest employment category in the four counties was the largest single employer in all counties and had the largest payroll of any single organization in every county. In a low income area, its patronage potential was especially important and this had an impact on the schools as shall be seen later.

Much has been written about the people of this region and their values. Sufficient for our purposes here are quotations from two well known books. First, Ford's statement, "Evidence that many members of Appalachian society are faced with internal and unresolved conflicts of various sorts has already been presented and need not be reviewed in detail. Parents with high aspirations for their children frequently do not exert the necessary effort to see that they receive the schooling that the realization of their aspirations requires. Residents of local communities concede the desirability of having better schools, better health facilities, and better government, but reject tax measures needed to provide them. Similarly, there is general recognition that organized social action is more effective than individual efforts, but attempts to organize action groups for purposes that have received popular endorsement often die aborning. The goals and benefits of industrial society are accepted; the methods of achieving them are endorsed but not supported; and the failure to support them is rooted in the values of agrarian society."[4]

---

[4] Thomas R. Ford, "The Passing of Provincialism," The Southern Appalachian Region, Thomas R. Ford, ed. (Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Press), 1962, p. 32.

Second, a quotation from Weller's excellent study: "Since the forms of education were imposed from the outside and did not grow up as an expresssion of the culture, teaching what the mountaineer wanted his children to learn, there has traditionally been a resistance to 'book learning'. A person was thought well enough educated if he could read and write and count, and 'too much' schooling was thought to be unnecessary and even dangerous -- and so was unwanted."[5]

In an area where residents have low incomes, where educational level is low, where education is not highly valued and where support for actions to improve the schools is lacking, it would be surprising to find great community pressure for excellence in school programs. It is to the schools of these counties that attention is next directed.

General Characteristics of the School Systems[6]

The school systems included in this study were county units with boundaries coterminous with the county political unit. In two counties -- 2 and 4 -- the school system included the total county. In County 1, there were two independent city systems enrolling a total of 2651 pupils and in County 3 there was one independent school system, enrolling 1408 pupils.

Each system had a five man board, elected by popular vote, from a particular division of the county for four-year overlapping terms. School

---

[5] Jack E. Weller, Yesterday's People, Life in Contemporary Appalachia, (Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Press), 1965, p. 108.

[6] Statistics used in this section have been adapted from records and reports of the individual school systems and the Kentucky State Department of Education.

Board elections were held on a non-partisan basis in November of even-numbered years. The superintendent was elected by majority vote of the board for a term of from one to four years.

The schools of these four systems were organized on an 8-4 plan, with one minor exception. County 4 had two small schools, one with a 7-12 organization and one with a 1-9 organization.

There were 147 schools in these districts in 1964-65, of which more than one-half were one-teacher and two-teacher schools.

TABLE 3

NUMBER AND ENROLLMENT OF SCHOOLS BY SIZE, 1964-65

School System	One and two teacher schools		Three-to-seven teacher schools		Eight-or-more teacher schools		Total Schools	
	No.	Enrolled	No.	Enrolled	No.	Enrolled	No.	Enrolle
1	10	477	12	1,406	9	3,859	31	5,742
2	40	918	5	584	8	4,130	53	5,632
3	27	762	11	876	11	4,970	49	6,608
4	8	179	0	0	6	2,536	14	2,715
Totals	85	2,336	28	2,866	34	15,495	147	20,697

As shown in Table 3, however, only 11 per cent of the total enrollment was enrolled in one and two-teacher schools while three-fourths of the students attended a consolidated school with eight-or-more teachers. Consolidation of schools, particularly the very small schools, had proceeded rapidly in these systems in recent years, and the number of schools had been reduced by more than one-half in the past ten years. Topography and road conditions generally prevented the establishment of very large attendance centers and there were only 10 schools in the four systems which had twenty or more teachers. These 10 schools, however, enrolled slightly more than one-third of the students in 1964-65.

As is shown in Table 4 on the following page of the total enrollment of 20,697 students, seventy-five per cent, or 15,533 students were in grades one through eight. Assuming an even age distribution of potential students and persistence in schools, this percentage would be 67 per cent. While such an assumption of age distribution is not completely defensible, the proportion of the enrollment in elementary school indicates a high drop-out rate at the secondary level in these systems.

Table 5 also on the following page compares ninth-grade enrollment of 1960-61 with twelfth-grade graduates of 1963-64 and shows that less than one-half of the ninth-grade students completed high school.

Allowing for out-migration the drop-out rate was still considerably above 40 per cent.

Despite the high drop-out rate which existed in these school systems, great improvement had been made within the past ten years in the holding power of the schools. While total enrollment declined by 16 per cent, the

TABLE 4

ENROLLMENT IN ELEMENTARY (GRADES 1-8) AND HIGH SCHOOL (GRADES 9-12), 1964-65

School System	Total Enrollment	(1-8) Elementary	(9-12) High School	High School Enrollment as a per cent of Total Enrollment
1	5,742	4,195	1,547	27%
2	5,632	4,594	1,038	18%
3	6,608	4,732	1,876	28%
4	2,715	2,032	683	25%
Total	20,697	15,553	5,144	25%

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF NINTH GRADE ENROLLMENT AND HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES FOUR YEARS LATER

School System	Enrollment in 9th Grade in 1960-61	Number of Graduates in 1964	Per Cent of 9th Grade Completing High School
1	512	275	54
2	310	129	42
3	564	288	51
4	165	74	45
Total	1,551	766	49

high school enrollment increased by 49 per cent. These data are displayed in Table 6.

TABLE 6

PER CENT CHANGE IN ENROLLMENT, 1945-55 -- 1964-65

School System	Total	Elementary	Secondary
1	-22	-32	+35
2	-9	-19	+81
3	-18	-30	+44
4	-11	-22	+56
Total	-16	-27	+49

In 1964-65 the schools of these systems were staffed by 790 classroom teachers. More than 95 per cent of these teachers had bachelor's degrees. Approximately 12 per cent had Master's degrees. Practically all of the teachers in these school systems were natives of this section of the state of Kentucky. Slightly more than 80 per cent of the teachers in these four counties were born and raised in the counties in which they were teaching. Most of those teachers of the four systems who were not natives of the county in which they taught were from adjoining counties. Less than six per cent were from another state. Not only were these teachers native to the counties in which they taught but about 85 per cent took their college training in institutions within one hundred miles of their homes. In one school system 85 per cent of the teachers went to a single institution of higher learning. Additionally, the only experience of most of the teachers had been in the systems in which they were then teaching. Twenty-three per cent had experience in other school systems, most of it in adjoining school systems. About six per cent had experience in other states.

The schools of these four systems were operated with revenues far below the average for schools of the United States. Current and total expenditure per pupil for 1963-64 are shown in Table 7. Lack of funds resulted in low teachers' salaries, cheaply constructed buildings and little instructional equipment and supplies.

TABLE 7

CURRENT AND TOTAL EXPENSE PER PUPIL IN ADA, 1963-64

School System	Current	Total
1	$245	$289
2	227	282
3	239	295
4	248	278

The average salaries for teachers in the four systems in 1964-65 is shown in Table 8 on the following page.

Revenue for the support of these school systems came primarily from state sources. In only one system was local revenue as much as 10 per cent of total receipts. These data are displayed in Table 9 also on the following page.

TABLE 8

AVERAGE SALARIES OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS, 1964-65

School System	Classroom Teachers' Average Salaries
1	$4,422
2	4,108
3	4,108
4	4,239

TABLE 9

PER CENT OF RECEIPTS BY SOURCE, 1963-64

School System	Local	State	Federal	Non-revenue
1	9.2	86.4	4.3	.1
2	9.6	86.7	3.0	.6
3	11.8	78.5	2.7	6.9
4	9.9	82.2	2.6	4.9

A frequently mentioned condition in these school systems was that of recent improvements. The passage of a foundation program in Kentucky in 1954 and full financing of the program in 1956 with greatly increased state support enabled many improvements to be made in the school systems. The expenditure per pupil in all of the systems was at least three times as much in 1964 as in 1954. Teachers' salaries increased sharply, pupil-teacher ratios were reduced, the number of one-teacher and two-teacher schools sharply reduced, and additional money was available for school building construction. One example will illustrate these changes. In 1954-55, County 1 with an enrollment of 7364, employed 201 classroom teachers, resulting in a pupil-teacher ratio of 36:1. In 1963-64, with an enrollment of 5724, County 1 employed 217 teachers resulting in a pupil-teacher ratio of 27:1.

The increased revenue for the support of the school system came almost entirely from the state, however. One of the systems was contributing fewer actual dollars from local sources in 1964 than in 1954 and the other three were contributing only a few more dollars from local sources.

The school program in these school systems was, in general, the minimum mandated by the state. In the elementary schools the classrooms were generally self-contained with some departmentalization in the upper grades. Only occasionally was any provision made for personnel in special areas such as music, art, physical education, library and guidance. Staffing at the high school level was somewhat more liberal probably due to accreditation standards of the state and regional accrediting associations. However, only one high school in the four systems was accredited by the regional accrediting association. In general, there was little provision made for differences among pupils in ability. Discussions with teachers and administrators indicated that there was little system-wide effort on curriculum problems. System-wide guides or courses of study were neither non-existent or out-of-date.

The school facilities were of inferior quality when compared with school buildings over the nation generally. The small rural schools were of inferior construction with inadequate sanitary provisions. While construction of new facilities had been stimulated since the passage of the foundation program, due to limited resources and tremendous need, new facilities were of minimum quantity and quality. In the elementary schools all that was usually provided were classrooms, rest rooms, a principal's office, and a cafeteria. Libraries were seldom, if ever, included in the orginial building plans, but occasionally when space permitted, a classroom or a storage room was used as a library. Very infrequently was an auditorium or indoor space for physical education included in the elementary school building.

Facility provision for the high schools was usually somewhat more adequate than that provided for elementary schools, but even so, the high school facilities were usually limited and inadequate. Practically all schools were crowded and used converted and makeshift space for instructional programs. This crowding in high schools with the increasing enrollments was understandable. The explanation for the crowded conditions in elementary schools where enrollments were decreasing was found in the inadequacy of many existing facilities leading to their abandonment and in the consolidation of small schools. Illustrations of the inadequate facilities were such improvisations as storage closets in many elementary schools used as libraries, a high school with 900 students that had a library with seating for eighteen students, and cafeterias with no storage spaces.

Because transportation was supported in the foundation program on a cost formula, provision for transportation in these school systems was relatively adequate when compared to many other aspects. Poor roads and isolated communities resulted in long and time consuming rides for some children.

Practically all of the schools in these four systems operated concession stands which sold soft drinks, candy and the like. Because of the volume of sales, a considerable yearly profit was realized -- sometimes in large schools as much as several thousand dollars. Some schools, out of the profits, had constructed separate block buildings in which to conduct business. The profits were used to buy instructional supplies and materials and sometimes to pay for items such as telephone bills which were not paid by the school system.

It was in such community and school settings that the administrators of these school systems operated, and the characteristics and operational procedures of these administrators will be discussed in the following pages.

General Characteristics of the Administrative Staffs

The school systems included in this study were staffed by 69 administrators, 29 in the central office, and 40 principals and assistant principals. The investigators collected data on sixty-four of these administrators who actively participated in the project. The common central office positions were as follows: superintendent, instructional supervisor and director of pupil personnel. Other positions staffed in some of the systems were assistant superintendent, finance officer, visiting teacher and director of school lunchrooms. The positions staffed are shown in Table 10 on the following page.

TABLE 10

ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS, 1964-65

Position	School System 1	2	3	4
Superintendent	1	1	1	1
Assistant Superintendent	-	1	1	1
Inst. Supervisors	2	2	3	1
Dir. Pupil Personnel	2	2	2	1
Finance Officer	1	1	-	-
Visiting Teacher	-	1	2	-
Lunch Director	-	1	1	-
Total Central Office	6	9	10	4
Principals	10	9	10	5
Assistant Principals	1	3	2	-
Total Administrators	17	21	22	9

Eight of the administrators of this study were women. All of the women administrators served in the central offices, most in positions as supervisor of instruction. Forty-four of these administrators held master's degrees.

Table 11 displays other selected characteristics of the administrators for whom complete data were available.

TABLE 11

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF ADMINISTRATORS

School System	Number of Administrators	Number not native to county	Number who had held educational positions outside county	Bachelor's degree outside immediate area	Master's degree outside immediate area
1	16	3	4	1	4
2	19	0	4	2	1
3	20	3	11	3	4
4	9	1	4	2	1
Total	64	7	23	8	10

Fifty-seven out of sixty-four of these administrators were natives of and received their public school education in the counties in which they were employed. Most of the remainder were natives of an adjacent county. Slightly more than one third of these administrators had held educational positions, either as teachers or as administrators or both, in school systems outside the county in which they were employed at the time of the study. However, practically all of this experience was in counties nearby. One eighth of the administrative staff received their bachelor's degrees in colleges more than one hundred miles from where they were employed. It was not uncommon for most of the administrators of a particular system to have received their degrees from the same institution.

At the Bachelor's level, eleven of sixteen in school system 1 received the degree at the same institution. In school system 2, nine of seventeen received their bachelor's degree at the same college, while in school system 4, five of nine graduated from the same college. The same was true at the Master's level in all four school systems. Ten of fourteen in school system 1, six of seven in school system 2, eleven of fifteen in school system 3, and seven of eight in school system 4, followed this pattern for the Master's degree. Hardly one fourth of the forty-four who had Master's degrees received them in institutions located more than one hundred miles from their places of employment. Thus, few members of the administrative staffs of these school systems had any contact during their entire careers with schools outside the localities where they were administering school programs.

Operational Characteristics of the Administrative Staff

A fourth dimension of the analysis made of the setting in which the project functioned was that of the operational characteristics of the administrative staffs. Working closely with these administrators over a period of several months revealed general patterns of operation which characterized their behavior. This section presents those major general patterns which were common to the four school districts. It is recognized that variations in specific operation existed among the districts within the general patterns.

Local Orientation

The orientation of the administrators of these school systems was local rather than professional. In the phrasing of Carlson, they were place-bound rather than career bound.[7] All were regionally-local by birth, training and experience, and most were school-system-local, as was indicated in the preceeding section. If they lost their job with the local school system, it was likely that they would secure a job in another field of endeavor and stay in the local community or secure a job in a school system nearby and commute to the place of employment.

Local rather than professional orientation was illustrated by attendance at professional meetings. Most were somewhat erratic in attending state meetings of administrators, and few attended national professional meetings. One administrator related with pride that he had not spent a night outside his school district in twenty years tenure. Further, professional reading was largely confined to the journals of state and national educational associations, with little perusal of periodicals devoted to school administration. In the eighteen months of the project, few administrators mentioned any recently published books which they had read on their own initiative.

Local orientation was further illustrated by the informal discussions among these administrators. They talked of hobbies, other business interests and personal items. Few times did the investigators hear an informal discussion of a professional problem. More than three-fourths of these administrators had some outside business or income-producing interest, and many had outside incomes which made them relatively financially independent.

The matter of ethics was considered in local terms rather than professional terms by the administrators of these schools. For example, local values were not inconsistent with efforts to secure a school administrative position, regardless of whether the position was occupied or not. Efforts to replace incumbents of certain administrative positions by other administrators were known to the investigators during the period of investigation. While these efforts may not have been approved by all these administrators, there was certainly no open disapproval, and a more important consideration in gaining disapproval or approval seemed to be whether the incumbent was a friend and ally or not. Furthermore there was open participation by these administrators in school board elections and in some systems substantial financial contributions to support the candidacy of incumbent board members were expected from the administrators. The local community apparently accepted this as normal procedure and it seemed to raise no ethical considerations for the administrators.

---

[7] Richard O. Carlson, "Succession and Performance Among School Superintendents," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 6, No. 2, Sept., 1961, pp. 210-227.

Non-Formal Organization

The organization of these school systems was not highly structured and was to a considerable extent non-formal. Not one of the four systems had comprehensive written school board policies, an organizational chart, or written job descriptions. Some policies were written as actions of the board of education in the official minutes, but these were fragmentary and frequently inconsistent. Some systems had policy handbooks which contained in the main only selected laws and State Board of Education regulations.

Each person, of course, had conceptions of his role and held role expectations of others. However, because these role definitions had never been formalized into specific written job descriptions, they were at a high level of generalization and did not cover more than frequently recurring situations. Questioning of participants revealed inconsistencies and conflicts among their perceptions of the nature of tasks for which they had authority and responsibility. For example, there was little consistency among the responses from principals and central office personnel concerning the responsibility for curriculum development. Some principals thought they had full responsibility and authority for instructional program change; other principals thought the responsibility was with central office personnel, and the central office personnel were similarly divided in their opinions. In fact, the question of curriculum development did not frequently arise.

The administrators in these systems saw little need for clarification of rules and regulations and for job descriptions. As they said, "We were born and raised here; we have worked in this school system for many years and we know what to do." One superintendent when questioned about an orientation program for principals of newly consolidated schools replied, "They have taught in the system for several years; they know me and what I expect; so there is no need to tell them." The same superintendent expressed a similar thought about orientation for new teachers: "They went to school here."

Reinforcing the decision not to formalize regulations and job descriptions was the pattern of administrative behavior when problems arose. Characteristically, problems were disposed of as they arose not on the basis of established policy, long-range planning, or consistency with decisions made in other similar cases, but on the basis of the administrator's "good judgment." Analysis of administrative behavior in problem solution might reveal consistency or it might not, but the administrators did not verbalize consistency as an important factor in their reactions. Inquiry about problem resolution repeatedly got the reply, "We solve our problems on the basis of good judgment." A frequently mentioned justification for continuing this pattern of administrative behavior was the evidence of recent improvements in the schools. Consolidated schools with new buildings, improved teachers' salaries, higher educational qualifications of teachers, and lowering of the drop-out rate among secondary students were factors which had been improved since the implementation of a state foundation program in 1956. Credit for these improvements was taken by the local administrators and was cited as evidence of the quality of their administration.

Attempts by the investigators to introduce fact finding in the deliberate resolution of recurring problems characteristically was met by introduction of more illustrations of the problem and definite resistance to consideration of carefully documented evidence.

The superintendents of these school systems all said that the principals were given great freedom to operate their schools as they saw fit. This was undoubtedly true. There were no formally written rules for them to operate in accordance with, and the decision to resolve problems or refer them to the superintendent was the principal's to make. However, the superintendent might reverse any principal's decision with which he disagreed. Illustrative of this general procedure was the case in one of the schools where a mother felt that a high school mathematics teacher was assigning too much homework. She appealed to the principal who took no action, thus giving backing to the teacher. The mother appealed to the superintendent. He drove to the school and ordered the teacher to restrict sharply the homework assignments. The superintendent then told the principal what he had done.

Such actions repeated many times seemed to make principals very careful of the decisions they made. In general, their decisions seemed to attempt to be made consistent with the superintendent's known preferences, or in the absence of a preference on the superintendent's part, referral to him for decision or advice on the decision.

In so far as it was possible to determine, no administrator in these systems had, within recent times, been dismissed for inadequate performance. No administrator admitted ever having had a direct discussion with his superior relative to the adequacy of his performance. In addition, salaries for comparable positions were the same. Consequently, there was little stimulation from superiors for high quality performance. Despite this, most of the superintendents seemed to have means of indicating pleasure or displeasure with subordinates' performance. Pleasantness or unpleasantness, joking or being reserved, are illustrations of means by which cues were given to subordinates. As one principal said, "I can always tell when Mr. Blank (the Superintendent) is unhappy with me about something." Yet no instance was identified in which the superintendent discussed directly the causes of the unhappiness with the subordinate. The investigators did see instances where the superintendents "fussed" at the total administrative staff in general meeting apparently in order to remind one individual of inadequate performance.

This lack of direct dealing with adequacy of performance by subordinates is no doubt related to patterns of deference given the top administrator in discussions. The research staff had difficulty getting administrative staff expression on problems until the superintendent expressed his position. After this was done, there was expression by the rest of the staff - usually agreement and further illustrations of the problem. As one principal said, "Only two of us administrators in this system will take a different position from Mr. Blank" (the superintendent). He could have added that these two did so very infrequently, and in carefully guarded terms.

While this general description was true in all four systems, there were some differences in degree of its application in systems where the superintendent had long tenure (more than twenty years) and in systems where the superintendent had short tenure (less than ten years). Two of the superintendents in this study were in the long tenure classification: one had seven years and one had three years tenure. In the former category no instance of public disagreement with the superintendent was noted, but the investigators saw several instances of "scrambling" to be in agreement with the superintendent as his position became clear in the discussion.

Occasional mild disagreement occured in the systems where superintendents had medium or short tenure. Delaying compliance or ignoring the wishes of the superintendent were more common in the systems in which the superintendent had shorter tenure.

Emphasis Upon Maintenance

The school systems in this study existed in an area which was classified as economically depressed. Because of poverty and low educational level there was little stimulation from the people for improved programs. The administrators who operated these systems were local and not professional in their outlook. It was natural then that these administrators were keenly aware of the economic importance of the schools and were concerned with maintaining the schools in community favor and themselves in their positions. This they attempted to do by running a "smooth ship", stirring up no controversies and pleasing everyone. Although maintenance, as a process, is a necessity to some degree in all organizations, in the operation of these school systems it became the paramount and over-riding consideration.

The relationship of the superintendent and the board of education was revealing. It was generally conceded by persons engaged in school work in this section of the state that the superintendent must participate actively in school board elections and have his candidates win in order to survive as the superintendent. Board members usually did not run on a platform based on operation of the school system but as "for" or "against" the incumbent superintendent. A frequently used method for a person who aspired to be the superintendent was to "run" a slate of candidates who, when elected, would dismiss the incumbent and appoint him. Therefore, it was common practice for the superintendent to persuade persons who were favorable to him to become candidates for the board and for the superintendent to actively support these candidates with all the resources at his command, including the efforts of trusted school employees.

Although this procedure was one which administrators were reluctant to discuss freely, all evidence indicated that the operation of the four systems followed the pattern discussed above. Numerous illustrations could be cited.

This pattern of activity of the superintendent in maintaining his position with the board of education emphasized the necessity for the superintendent to avoid actions which disturbed people -- both lay and staff -- about the operation of the schools.

Repeated illustrations of the concern for avoiding any controversy even at the expense of the educational opportunity for children came up during the investigators' contacts in the school systems. None of the school systems had attendance boundaries for individual schools clearly defined. Some districts rather generally designated boundaries but allowed exceptions requested by parents for their children. Other districts did not even designate general boundaries. Consequently, administrators were frequently unable to predict with any degree of certainty what enrollments would be in a particular school and in many instances one school would be grossly overcrowded while another school nearby would have unfilled classrooms. For example, one school attempted to maintain a program for ten 9th grade students while several times this number of 9th grade students from the same community were transported to overcrowded classrooms in a school several miles away. A new school, planned for 350 students, opened with an enrollment of nearly 500 because students in nearby older schools wanted to attend the new school. The nearly 500 students were crowded into the new school with enrollment in one room reaching 57, while acceptable vacant classrooms were left idle in nearby schools. The justification given by the administrators was that parents would not like their children to be denied the opportunity to attend the new school, and that they had to do what pleased the parents.

When action by the state department of education threatened the closing of school operated stores, principals suggested that this would create many problems because of students patronizing stores near the schools during school hours. The principals maintained that because parents wanted their children to make purchases of candy and soft drinks at these stores the principals could not prevent the children leaving the school to go to the stores. When it was suggested that the school children could be restricted to the school grounds during the school day, the unanimous response was, "We couldn't do that; the parents wouldn't like it."

Characteristically, action was taken on educational problems only as complaints arose. Glaring inadequacies in instructional programs were excused by the expression, "No one has ever complained." Similarly obvious inadequacies in personnel performance were excused on the same basis. As one superintendent said, "I know Miss Blank is a poor teacher, but you know, no parent has ever complained about her." Obviously, Miss Blank would continue in her position.

This characteristic behavior of taking no action on problems until complaints arise precluded long range planning and resulted in action only in response to pressures on a haphazard basis. In such a situation about the only constructive pressure for improvement came from the state educational authorities, and this pressure was responded to if it was judged to be non-controversial on the local level. A survey in one of the systems of major changes made in the system during the past five years revealed that every one of the thirteen identified was of such a nature that local residents would not object. Addition of personnel and materials made up eight of the changes. Additionally, nine of the changes were made possible by increased funds from state and federal levels. Not a single change related to major alterations of roles of personnel or the instructional program.

Emphasis Upon Management

Performance of personnel in these systems was largely judged on the basis of the number of complaints which arose about a person's work. If no one complained about a person's performance, it was judged to be satisfactory. In such systems where performance was judged by the smoothness of the operation and absence of complaints, it was to be expected that administrators concentrated their energies on those aspects of the job where troubles could arise. Quality in instructional programs is somewhat hard to judge even by the most enlightened. In the communities served by these schools residents were not primarily concerned with educational excellence. Consequently there was a minimum pressure on the school administrators for improvement of educational programs. There was pressure that children have free lunches, that teachers not mistreat children, that children be transported safely to school buildings which are physically comfortable and that local expenditure for education be kept to the minimum. The result was emphasis by administrators on routine management items such as building maintenance and cafeteria management, school-store management, answering complaints of parents, discipline of children, and the keeping of records and reports necessary to maintain the flow of state and federal money into the system.

Study of the administrators' own statements concerning an analysis of their jobs and an analysis of their problems revealed that typically more than half their duties and problems as they perceived them were in the area of routine management. Observation of and discussion with the administrators confirmed this analysis.

One reason for the large amount of the administrators' time being spent on routine management was the little dependence on mechanical equipment and secretarial and clerical assistance. Beyond typewriters and adding machines there was hardly any mechanical equipment in the four central offices and many of the principals' offices did not have even the typewriter and adding machine. Staffing of competent secretaries was far below minimums necessary to relieve the administrators of large clerical loads. One central office employed not a single secretary. In another system a large percentage of the persons employed as secretaries could not type or take dictation or keep a set of books. Most high schools employed at least a part-time secretary, but many elementary schools had no secretarial help at all.

One explanation for loading administrators with clerical routine was economic in nature. Salaries for clerical assistants were not supported directly by the state financial foundation program while salaries for specific administrative positions were. Consequently the school system could employ an administrator whose duties were largely clerical routine at practically no local expense. If clerical assistants were employed the expense would be largely local.

A conversation between an elementary principal and one of the investigators illustrated well the emphasis on routine management duties by administrators in these school systems. The principal said, "The children in this school don't get an eighth grade education."

"What do you mean?" asked the investigator.

"I mean they don't learn what they should."

"Do you have any responsibility for this?"

"I guess I do," said the principal, "But I don't do anything about it for three reasons. First, I am not judged on the educational program but on the accuracy and promptness of my records and reports and on the lack of complaints about the school. Second, I don't feel competent and secure in working with teachers on instructional problems. Third, since I spend my time on those things on which I am judged, I don't have time to work with the instructional program."

This principal planned the cafeteria menus, selected the food at the store, delivered the food to the school, collected the lunch money, made the decisions about which children should receive free lunches, kept the cafeteria books, paid the cafeteria bills, raised several hundred dollars through the operation of a school store in which he did all the work; he prepared all the records and reports for his school (records which were required by the school system and the state education department); he supervised the care and maintenance of his building, kept all school records on school equipment and supplies, including textbooks; he answered the telephone, and kept the parents in the community reasonably happy, and performed many other comparable duties. This he did with clerical assistance of one person for one-half day a week.

Most of the work of the principal with teachers was on discipline. Discipline was mentioned repeatedly by principals when questioned about their work with classroom teachers and by teachers when questioned about how the principals helped them in their work. In one system, ten principals were questioned about the competency of their teaching staff. Seven of the ten reported that they had at least one "weak" teacher. When questioned about the nature of the weakness, every principal's response as to the first weakness was, "She can't maintain discipline." Not once was a teacher reported for her inadequacies in instructing children.

Neglect of Curriculum Development

In school systems where there is heavy emphasis upon smooth operation and not offending anyone, and where the major jobs of the administrators are on routine management, it would be expected that instructional programs would receive little attention. This was precisely the case in these four school systems.

Not one of the four systems had any commonly accepted written goals and discussion with administrators and teachers confirmed a lack of any common effort to clarify what the schools were attempting to accomplish. Initial questioning of administrators and teachers about goals brought an expression of surprise that this was even worthy of discussion. "Everyone knows what the school should do -- teach children." Further discussion revealed wide differences among administrators and teachers concerning the goals of the schools and it was quite evident there had been little recognition of these differences and no special effort to reconcile them.

Only one of the systems had ever made an effort to develop comprehensive curriculum guides and this was done ten years ago. It had not been revised, was out of print, and teachers recently hired in the system were not aware of its existence. Individual teachers, therefore, were apparently free to determine the goals they attempted to achieve and to determine the content used to achieve these goals. Realistically, however, it was likely that deviation from traditional practice which aroused controversy would not be tolerated. Little evidence was available on this point for no attempts at major alterations by classroom teachers could be recalled by the administrators.

Textbooks then determined to a great extent the curriculum of these schools. Supplementary and reference materials were in short supply or non-existent.

There was little evidence that much effort was made to relate instructional programs to immediate student needs. For example, observations in the classrooms of health instruction revealed a study-recite pattern of abstract textbook facts with practically no reference to the relationship of these facts to needs and habits of children.

There was little supervision of instruction by the administrators. Few classroom visits for the purpose of improving instruction were made nor was there any concerted effort to work on instructional programs. Administrators themselves complained that they knew little about what was being taught in their own or other schools in the system.

Faculty meetings were held but with little apparent regularity or plan. Routine management announcements and decisions consumed most of the time of those meetings which were held. In-service education programs were conducted in each of the systems, but the general plan was for two days before school started or one day then and one day later in the school year. However, there was little continuity in the programs, little effort continuing during the year, and the program usually consisted of an imported speaker or two with a minimum of staff participation.

Practically no new programs in subject areas had been introduced in these school systems within recent times. During this study most of the systems were considering the adoption of "new mathematics" but this change was brought about by the threat of unavailability of textbooks to continue the "old program". Participation of teachers in training programs for the introduction of these new materials where held at all was made voluntary. Consequently, many teachers did not participate and it could be anticipated that the adoption process would be somewhat haphazard. It was not explained how instructional sequence would be maintained in such circumstances.

Administrators of these school systems frequently complained about the attitudes of children and parents regarding welfare programs. "They want something for nothing," and "The government relief programs have ruined these people," were said many times as explanations for failure of school programs. Questioning administrators about efforts to develop school programs which attempted to deal with the development of attitudes and skills in the area of citizenship revealed that practically nothing had been done.

Supporting Personnel Practices

Personnel practices in these school systems were consistent with and supported the organization and procedures described earlier in this section. Deliberate effort was made to employ all local residents who applied for certificated positions in the school system. Although economic conditions had resulted in salary schedules which were not conducive to applications by outsiders, there was considerable evidence that such applications would not be given favorable consideration. Statements by responsible administrators made plain a feeling of obligation to give local residents preference and the undesirability of employment of outsiders. This policy was given great support by the community. As one administrator said, "The local people feel they have a God-given right to the school jobs." Another remarked, "No superintendent could survive in his position if he hired outsiders." This policy had worked with a minimum of difficulty during the period of teacher shortages. There were always more positions than qualified local applicants. Further vacancies were filled with local residents qualified on an emergency basis.

No effort was made to recruit personnel with specialized skills. If a new position was created and no local person applied the position remained open. For example, the positions for guidance counselor which had been created during the last few years had been filled only as local residents became qualified and applied for the positions. This has resulted in vacancies in positions requiring specialized skills but this appeared to be of little concern to the administrators, and if concern was expressed it was accompanied by a feeling that nothing could be done to correct the situation. Not only were local residents given almost exclusive preference in employment, but they were almost always retained, regardless of performance. No formal procedures for the evaluation of personnel were employed. Many principals reported that the superintendent would not support efforts for dismissal and others indicated it was unthinkable to dismiss a person who was a friend or long-time acquaintance. Most criticisms of teachers by principals centered not on inability to instruct in content areas but rather to unkindness or unfairness toward children.

The administrators of these systems, having accepted an obligation to employ all local residents possible with a minimum of screening and yet sensing inadequacies among some of them, blamed the colleges for graduating and the state for certificating incompetent people. They accepted little responsibility for screening procedures to eliminate some of the unfit applicants, for fundamental encouragement and help on the job, for in-service programs to deepen and develop new understandings and skills and for procedures to eliminate the obviously unfit who were occupying teaching positions.

The employment of staff was done in all systems by the superintendent. Most of the time he completed the procedure without consultation. Occasionally he would confer with the principal of the school in which the teacher was to be placed.

Promotion was almost always from within the system and was decided upon by the superintendent. The decisions were based upon factors known only to the superintendent and efforts to find out the basis for selection were not fruitful. "I decided upon the basis of who would be best for the job," was the standard response. Inference from other evidence indicated that selection was made on the basis of the superintendent's judgment of the ability of the person selected to administer smoothly the program in existence in the schools and upon the applicant's relations with community power. To illustrate this latter consideration, two of the superintendents in the study when questioned about their successors if they should resign, identified one or two persons who were best qualified among local administrators and immediately eliminated those identified with identical expressions, "But they have no 'connections' (political influence) in the county."

Summary

Though some of the foregoing comments may appear to be uncomplimentary of the school communities, and the administrators who participated in this study, this has been unintentional. The project staff recognizes that many of the conditions that have resulted in certain community, school, and administrative performance characteristics are economic in nature, and, therefore, are not attributable directly to the people presently living in this region. To be sure, in the long run, people do help determine the environmental conditions with which they are surrounded; however, the natural resources, physical geography, and national relationships also are prime determiners of such conditions. Thus, in a very real sense these administrators have inherited a region that has been by-passed by the mainstream of American growth. Now they must either be content to adjust to less than desirable conditions or develop the leadership so crucial if these conditions are to be challenged and changed. The project staff saw few instances to suggest that the former course of action will be taken. On the contrary, the sincerity, dedication, and hope that was projected from these administrators were promises that a better day will ultimately come for this troubled land.

Briefly, the school and community conditions wherein this study was carried on were inhibitory to the in-service education of the administrators of the four school districts. Therefore, the efforts that were exerted by the project staff had to be developed so as to overcome the obstacles of environment, and yet enmeshed with the environmental conditions so that realistic and practical outcomes would be experienced by the administrators.

Chapter III describes the procedures employed by the project staff to provide for the in-service education of the administrators in the four school districts participating in this study.

CHAPTER III

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROCEDURES

The basic premise upon which this project was based assumed that procedures could be developed for the extension of the professional competencies of school administrators practicing in communities such as those described in the preceeding chapter. Consequently, the project's proposal specifically prescribed several elements which were projected as a framework within which operational procedures would be developed to capitalize upon the unique characteristics of each of the school districts.

This chapter is constructed so that the center headings refer to those elements built into the proposal and the subsequent discussion describes the procedures developed by the staff for the in-service education of themselves and the participating school administrators.

In an effort to facilitate reading, the chapter's first sections refer to the procedures for the staff's developing itself into a working team and to the generation of procedures for determining changes that occurred as a consequence of the project. Subsequent sections are then devoted to a description of the procedures developed for working with the practicing administrators.

It will be obvious to the reader that undergirding all descriptions of procedures are principles of behavior recognized as "group process." It will be apparent also that group process with problem solving as its focus comprised the project staff's basic procedure. Consequently, while descriptions of various procedures are offered, the dynamics of the interplay of people, circumstances and procedures are impossible to report; however, the impact of this interplay ultimately determined what was done and the ensuing consequences.

Developing the Staff as a Team

The project's success was largely dependent upon the ability of the staff to transform itself into an operational team pursuing commonly accepted goals in ways consistent with the project's intent. Consequently, one of the first and never-ending tasks encountered was that of welding these individuals into an efficiently functioning team.

The four persons who comprised the project staff were uniquely different in many ways, yet possessed some characteristics in common. One was a former teacher, principal, and supervisor and had extensive experience in the preparation of educational supervisors. A second had an experience background as superintendent, supervisor, and teacher and was recognized for his competency in the superintendency. The third came to the project from many years as high school teacher, elementary principal, and director of instruction in urban schools and possessed competency in the elementary principalship. The fourth had been an elementary teacher, high school principal, and supervisor and had been engaged for many years in in-service teacher education. Thus, while all had considerable experience in public school work and college teaching, each brought a somewhat different orientation to the project.

All four had previously worked together in various efforts at the University of Kentucky over a period of two years; two had been together for five years. Thus it was initially assumed that this staff had fairly well defined perceptions of each other and so were capable of immediately functioning as a team when the project was initiated. This assumption was quite naive, for differences in orientation proved to be more formidable than had been anticipated. This resulted in conflicting positions in interpreting the proposal, in designing the initial implementing procedures and in several other operational efforts in which joint participation was necessary.

This aspect of staff development is reported so that others who anticipate participating in the formation of a team will not be discouraged when differences among members appear. Logically, differences should serve a complementary function so that the collective competencies of a team lead toward greater productivity than could be realized through the efforts of a single person. The outcomes of this project do indeed support this logic; however, operationally, differences within a team at times appear to be almost insurmountable obstacles. The give a little, take a little attitudes necessary for effective team effort are not guaranteed attributes among a group even though they may have had prior experience together. A collection of individuals does not necessarily constitute a "team."

These staff differences sensitized the staff to a similar difficulty to be faced by each district team of administrators. Although it had been recognized originally that the ultimate outcomes of the project would depend in large part upon the degree to which the administrators could be helped to function as a team, the staff had not fully realized the complexity of this task.

Operationally, these staff differences were utilized and somewhat resolved. The unique differences were capitalized on in staff assignment to districts and to specific responsibilities at various times. Resolution of the differences at the ideational level forced the staff to spend considerable amounts of time developing and testing procedures ultimately employed in the field. For example, the staff attempted to employ functional group procedures to: (a) identify and define its problems, (b) gather information germane to the problem, (c) apply that information as a base for determining subsequent action, (d) initiate action, and (e) assess consequences and revise initial plans for future action.

From its intensive early periods of discussion and debate, the staff produced "a set of beliefs" about people and about how people can be assisted to change. The following brief statements are offered, without elaboration, as the philo-psychological moorings agreed upon by the staff as the base for developing procedures for the in-service education of school administrators:

Beliefs About People And Learning

1. Behavior is purposeful -- not accidental nor random.
2. Behavior is a function of perception, and the starting point of altering behavior is perception.
3. Perception is a product of the individual's interactions with his environment.
4. Individuals and groups possess the capacity for altering their perceptions and thus their behavior.
5. Such alterations are best achieved under conditions which provide individuals and/or groups:
    a. reasonable freedom from compulsion to accept another person's point of view.
    b. encouragement, support and opportunity to examine ideas, procedures and/or beliefs which are immediately meaningful.
    c. encouragement, support and opportunity to check their individual perceptions against those of other people without fear of reprisal, rejection or self-denial.

d. opportunities to exercise independence in thought and action within a framework of loyalty to others and to the organization.

e. encouragement and assistance to determine and examine the limits of personal freedom within an organizational framework.

f. time to explore, to examine and to discuss concerns, perceptions and/or beliefs about self, the job or education in general.

g. opportunities and assistance in securing and becoming familiar with new information significant to jobs to be performed.

h. opportunities and assistance in utilizing a variety of resources in seeking solutions to problems.

i. assistance in establishing goals which are recognized as purposefully related to job performance or problem solution.

A second consequence of the staff's early intensive periods of time devoted to difference resolution was the development of a theoretical model of educational administration to serve as a structural framework within which administrative performance could be classified and which would serve as a guide for the staff. From review of the literature, and lengthy staff discussion, the staff developed what they called a "Paradigm of School Administration," which reflected their views and established a philosophic structure for the many decisions that followed. Consequently, the Paradigm enabled the staff to communicate more effectively both among themselves and with the other participants, to provide a framework for selecting and/or developing the research instruments and techniques, and to arrange and interpret the various data of this report.

PARADIGM OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Area I Instructional Program

Practices and procedures to:

1. Establish clearly stated goals and objectives and to sustain a continuing evaluation of the validity of such goals and objectives.

2. Involve the staff in continuous program planning to:
   a. assess the adequacy of present programs
   b. study the feasibility of developing new programs
   c. project new programs

3. Facilitate the implementation of program plans, including:
   a. providing leadership and encouraging the emergence of leadership
   b. making available resources, materials, and research data
   c. coordinating the efforts of groups and individuals.

4. Conduct and facilitate evaluation of new programs.

Area II School Organization

Practices and procedures to:

1. Develop policy recommendations for the superintendent and the board of education.

2. Clarify administrators' responsibilities and assign authority for meeting such responsibilities.

3. Delineate administrators' roles to prevent undue overlap and conflict.

4. Develop school organization practices which:
   a. "routinize" management details, both for the teacher and the administrator
   b. provide time for the teacher to make preparation and to engage in in-service education experiences.
   c. focus instruction toward the individual pupil
   d. maintain adequate research data for decision-making
   e. utilize resources and materials wisely
   f. maintain school-community relationships.

Area III **Staff Personnel**

Practices and procedures to:

1. **Establish and communicate personnel policies such as:**
    - **a. salary schedules**
    - **b. recruitment, tenure, retirement, dismissal, sick leave and ethics.**
    - **c. personnel evaluation.**
2. **Communicate with the total staff**
3. **Establish adequate supervision for:**
    - **a. program implementation**
    - **b. program improvement, including in-service education.**
4. **Provide for adequate coordination.**

Area IV **Community Relations**

Practices and procedures to:

1. **Communicate school needs to the community.**
2. **Encourage community support of the schools.**
3. **Utilize the resources of the community.**
4. **Communicate with parents concerning the welfare and progress of pupils.**

Area V **Management**

Practices and procedures to:

1. **Maintain physical facilities (buildings, equipment, supplies).**
2. **Manage finances wisely.**
3. **Maintain auxillary services (transportation, health and safety, lunchroom).**

Throughout the project the principal contact with each district team was through an individual staff member who was assigned to that district. This structure, of course, tended to isolate each district; however, the staff team met together for coordination and informational purposes a half day each week on a regular schedule, a process that helped to keep the various activities and elements of the project focused in unity.

These weekly sessions were essential to the development of the staff team. Typically, each staff member gave a resume of his work, including the progress being made in his district, the problems encountered, and the plans being developed. These reports provided a base for the staff to identify common problems and concerns and to project ways of meeting these. For example, a common problem arose in the attempt to use rather formalized procedures in district problem identification. Staff discussion led to the conclusion that different, and informal, procedures should be substituted. The experience of developing the procedures provided another opportunity for the staff to work as a team.

Gradually, as the necessity for subordinating the orientation of the individual staff member for the emerging perspective of the team became apparent, the staff increasingly functioned as a team.

One of the research associates probably best summarized the staffs' working together to extend their own knowledge and skills to become a team when he wrote, "As I joined this group, I saw individuals behaving as individuals. However, during the year I was privileged to be a part of a group which strove to practice what it preached. I was horrified to observe college professors pounding tables, defending and attacking points of differences in their search for a 'best' way of doing things. It continues to amaze me that from such sessions the apparent frustrations were more intellectually rather than personally oriented. This experience will always stand out as an example of a group constructively directing their own learnings while engaged in a common venture."

Using the Interdisciplinary Consultants

The four consultants, representing the disciplines of anthropology, political science, sociology, and social psychology, were utilized in observing, analyzing, planning, and evaluating various elements of the project. Primarily, they were used by and for the project staff rather than with the administrators, though some contact with the administrators was planned for and carried out.

The consultants collectively and individually, met with the project staff during many of the weekly analysis and planning sessions, and provided counsel from their respective points of view. As analyzers, they assisted in interpreting information provided through the efforts of the staff, or made suggestions for additional data. As planners, they helped with the research design and in the development of procedures to deal with specific problems. As evaluators, they observed the staff and the administrators during conferences and clinics and made written reports of their observations.

Because these consultants were not as personally involved with the administrators as were the staff members, they were in position to view the project with a more detached and objective eye. Additionally, their relationship to the administrators provided them with avenues to secure participant reaction which were not available to the staff. For example, during one conference, composed of all the administrators from the four districts, each consultant worked with a group of about fifteen persons seeking opinions of the efficacy or ineptness of the behavior of the project staff.

Using Graduate Research Associates

Three research associates were integral members of the project staff. One was a candidate for the Master's Degree, the others for doctoral degrees. Each was assigned primarily to a senior staff member who served as his "sponsor."

While these young men were primarily graduate students, they were included and treated as working staff members. As such they participated in all staff working, planning and assessment sessions. As with other staff members, they were given special assignments or projects for which they had primary responsibility. For example, two searched the literature and sought to develop a model for designating and showing relationships among variables involved in educational change. Another was assigned the task of collecting and codifying pertinent census data for each of the four districts.

Additionally each research assistant worked with his staff sponsor in the local school districts. In this relationship, the research associate and his "sponsor" co-planned their field work including interviews, individual conferences and bi-weekly working seminars. The associate first hand knowledge of such districts uniquely qualified them for aiding in the analysis of situations and for predicting "consequences" of proposed plans of action in the field service reports.

During the conferences and clinics care was taken to see that the research associates gained experience in planning, presiding during a portion of the program and/or making a presentation. They shared with staff responsibilities for planning each such session.

The research associates were consciously involved in planning and implementing the conferences and clinic sessions held for all participants. Their subsequent participation in such sessions included experiences as presiding officer, major speaker, discussion leaders, recorders, and general facilitators.

Initiating the Project

Initiation of the project included the selection of the participating districts, the formal negotiation with the district and the orientation of participants.

Selection of the Districts

The proposal had specified the involvement of four Eastern Kentucky County school districts and approximately sixty participating administrators. Consequently, the districts were selected on the basis of the following criteria:

1. The districts had to be in and typical of rural Eastern Kentucky in the region officially designated by the United States Office of Economic Opportunity as economically depressed.
2. While the total number of participants was limited to approximately sixty, the districts had to vary in size from "small" to "medium large."
3. The districts had to have evidence that their administrative staffs had been and were engaged in sincere efforts to improve their school programs.
4. With few reasonable exceptions, the districts' entire administrative staffs had to agree to participate throughout the project.

Application of the first two criteria produced a listing of districts which might technically qualify for participation. Criteria three and four were then applied to rank these districts by using staff judgments based on personal knowledge and experiences in the districts.

Negotiation for Participation

Because of their knowledge of the region, the staff used the telephone as the initial means of contacting the four superintendents whose districts were ranked at the top of the list. Only one of the four superintendents felt that other priorities precluded his district's participation. Therefore, the fifth district on the list was called and accepted the invitation to participate.

This initial telephone conversation focused upon the nature of the project, the reason for selecting the district and a request for assistance in aiding the project staff learn "how" college professors might work effectively with administrators on the job. Conscious effort was made to stress the district's selection on the basis of: (a) past associations with the staff, (b) the district's persistent interests in and efforts to improve and (c) the staff's need for their assistance in this significant endeavor which would yield consequences of value to both parties.

Positive response to the phone call was followed by a staff visit to each district for further dialogue and for an official statement of intent. While it was stressed that the conference in each district be attended by all prospective participants, only one district had all present. One superintendent involved only "key" members of his administrative staff. The other two superintendents stated that the involvement of others at this time was unnecessary.

In each instance, the superintendent committed the district. Board of Education approval was treated as a formality; consequently, in no instance was a formal agreement signed. Rather a letter of intent was the only document exchanged between the project staff and each superintendent. More than this would have been unnecessary and inappropriate.

Orientation and Initiation Conference

Initial contact with all participants occurred at a conference arranged on "neutral" ground at Hazard, Kentucky on August 4-5. The critical nature of this first confrontation required the exercise of extreme care in communicating the project's purposes and general operational structure. To this end, both written and verbal resumes were discussed, and questions were elicited and responded to by the staff. General discussion was followed by dividing the administrators into four structured groups with an interdisciplinary consultant, a staff member and a graduate research associate assigned to each. Here again, questions and operational procedures were elicited and discussed.

This conference was also used for administration of the initial data collecting instruments (Job Description Form, Problem Identification Instrument, Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, Leadership Q-sort and Purposes of Education Q-sort.)

During the conference, a staff member and a graduate assistant were assigned to each school district on the basis of an assessment of who could work most effectively with a district's team. A half day was devoted to this newly constituted team to clarify roles and to begin developing operational plans for the year later including an initial identification of local administrative problems and the establishment of a time and date for the first bi-weekly meeting.

The staff's primary concerns in the conference were largely those of getting to know the participants, facilitating their identification with the project and the other participants, and initiating the process of developing an espirit de corps among the four district groups.

Using The Local School Districts As Learning Laboratories

As earlier described, the four local districts shared many common general characteristics. Yet, the interaction of specific variables which constitute an operational school district resulted in each district's being a dramatically unique entity. For example, while the administrators shared certain general personal characteristics, each functioned as a unique human being and as such perceived the world of reality through glasses ground to a prescription determined by his unique experiences. Consequently, the unique characteristics operative within a district were capitalized upon to develop in-service experiences based upon the identification and resolution of those problems envisioned by that local team as most significant to their operational reality. In other words, the local district provided a unique laboratory setting, in which a team's real problems could be identified and attacked, and within which solutions could be tested.

To illustrate, the establishment of a centralized lunchroom program would have enhanced the administrative efficiency in one district. However, with intellectual acknowledgement of the desirability of such a move, the local administrative staff eliminated this as a major concern because of local conditions and other more pressing problems.

Conditions within each district (as a laboratory) equally affected the procedures used in attacking problems. For example, one district felt considerable need to develop job descriptions and procedures for evaluating performance for each position within that district. Due to a variety of local circumstances, the resultant product was not as comprehensive,consistent nor sophisticated as those available in the literature or operative in other districts. However, within the situational limitations, this endeavor resulted in administrative procedures seen as an improvement over past conditions yet compatible with those variables operative within that district.

The staff's use of the district as a laboratory offered a setting in which the real (rather than "theoretical") factors could be identified in dealing with a specific problem. More importantly, the development of plans that would capitalize upon the enhancing variables and neutralize the negative gave both the local team and the staff first-hand experience in translating these variables into testable actions.

Bi-weekly Working Seminars

Organizationally the project instituted in each local school district a half-day seminar every two weeks. This seminar was attended by all members of the local administrative team, the staff member and research associate assigned to the district. Usually chaired by the superintendent-or a group-designated leader - these seminars provided time for cooperative attacks upon district problems of concern to the local administrative staff. Initially, the general procedures used were those found in most such administrative staff meetings. The function of the project staff member (as a working member of the local team) was that of causing the group to analyze its procedures and to devise and test modifications predicted to be more productive for the task at hand.

For example, one local team initially operated on the basis that every person on the team had to be involved in every action and in every decision regardless of the nature of the problem under consideration. The project staff member waited until the burden of such a procedure bogged the group down to the point that they felt that nothing was being accomplished and that they were not getting the job done. At this point, it was suggested that the team analyze their procedure to determine the cause of the break down. This accomplished, the group moved on to identify specific tasks related to the problem and delegated these to individuals or sub-groups. Subsequently, the differentation of responsibilities became an integral part of this team's procedure.

Operationally these seminars were usually problem-oriented with a major portion of the time being spent in problem-analysis, information gathering, sub-group work, synthesis of efforts and planning courses of action. A more detailed description of the seminar procedures developed and used follows in the remainder of this chapter.

Using Problem-Solving As A Learning Vehicle

The procedures used in the bi-weekly seminars are best classified abstractly as "problem-solving." However, as here used, the term has something of a unique meaning. The local districts and their attendant operations comprised the laboratory, the bi-weekly seminars designated time for the local administrators to work together as a team, and the "problem-solving" method was used to identify, analyze and test solutions to local administrative problems in a somewhat organized and systematic manner. This procedure provided a practical and natural vehicle for introducing and applying information relative to school administration in its broadest interpretation while seeking solutions to operational problems of significance to the local team. Thus three factors: the use of the district, the bi-weekly seminars and the problem-solving method were uniquely used as the basic means through which the staff sought to extend the knowledge and skills of the practicing administrators.

While problem-solving was considered the overall general procedure, its application varied considerably. General conditions inherent in each of the four settings, and specific conditions operative at the moment of application caused each staff member to vary his procedures according to his judgment as to what was best at that time. Consequently, the following discussion of the various general phases of the problem-solving procedure attempts to report a degree of this variability.

Using Problem Identification

Before problems can be resolved, they must first be identified. The variety of possible procedures for such identification is infinite; however, those most used in this project are described in the following paragraphs.

The initial procedure included the administration of the Problems Identification Instrument at the Orientation Conference in August 1964. An analysis of the responses cued the staff on the concerns of each person and each team. However, recognizing that those reported problems were probably superficial and most likely polite responses to the staff's request, the staff compiled these for testing their significance with the districts during the initial bi-weekly seminars.

The initial sessions of the seminars were devoted to problem identification and exploration. It was immediately apparent that general team consensus on those responses to the Problems Identification Instrument was lacking. Consequently, time was spent in each district attempting to develop an extensive listing of problems, to create a set of criteria by which these could be ranked, and to apply these criteria for the establishment of priorities among the problems.

This procedure proved unproductive - but enjoyable - until the Paradigm of School Administration was introduced to provide a conceptual framework within which problems could be placed so that their relationships to other problems could be established. Discussion relative both to the placement of problems and to the assignment of priority helped to set the tenor for subsequent work in each district.

From the above described procedures for identifying problems with a group emerged a procedure referred to by the staff as its "third-ear" technique. This involved listening to all comments, both in the seminars and in individual conferences, with a sensitivity to what was being said and silently questioning why it was said. Such listening enabled each staff member to synthesize a host of apparently inconsequential and unrelated points of irritations, extrapolate some common factor, and use this factor in stimulating group action. For example, one district spent some five or six sessions on problem identification using the first three procedures described above. For some reason, such efforts were successful in eliciting problems, but the group did not seem enthusiastic about pursuing any of them. Rather they were inclined to provide immediate, "quick" solutions to these problems and move on. From his "third-ear", the assigned staff member was conscious that the group had expressed concern over their English program; he knew that they were sensitive to the lack of continuity in that program; he knew that the administrators felt that colloquialisms, etc., permeated the program; he knew that the administrators were limited in their knowledge and skills for taking positive action; finally, he knew that they were to have a two-day county-wide in-service teacher education conference later in the year and that these administrators would have major responsibilities in planning and implementing it. Thus, when the in-service program was casually identified as a concern, he "tied" these loose ends together to show how meeting this responsibility (the in-service days) could encompass several of their problems and suggested that these be pursued. Subsequently, the group focused their attention in terms of how to improve their English instructional program through the in-service education of staff. This endeavor was in turn used by the project staff member to raise such questions as: What roles do we (the district team) have in helping teachers design instructional programs in English? How can we develop greater participation on the part of teachers and community? What can we do to secure and have utilized more appropriate materials for English instruction? What are the superintendent's, supervisor's, and principal's unique and specific roles in this endeavor? How can principals work effectively with their staffs to develop a more effective program? Such questions caused the group not only to examine their roles philosophically, but also to seek help in experimenting with different techniques in working with their teachers and their communities.

Formulating Statements of Sub-Problems

The established administrative pattern in dealing with a problem was that of identifying it, making whatever decision which seemed best and moving on to something else. Consequently, the project staff members quite consciously attempted to build into the problem-solving procedure a step which required the analysis of the general problem into sub-problems, and the utilization of the major problem as an umbrella covering such sub-problems.

Illustrative of this procedure is the case of one district which always sought to provide immediate solutions to all problems which were suggested. If someone cited pupil attendance as a problem, others would quickly respond with such highly generalized, ready-made solutions such as: "Parents should have more interest in seeing that their children are in school," or "Teachers should visit the home and tell the parents of the advantages of education." Rarely indeed would this group engage in such an introspective task so that the problem could be seen as "How can we develop ways of helping parents see the advantages of their children's receiving a quality education?" Nor after stating the problem in this way, did they analyze this statement into such sub-statements as "How do these parents view education?" "Why are some children absent so much?" "Why do some children drop out of school when they reach the legal age for doing so?" "How do people change their perceptions?" "What have other schools done to help parents and children change their perceptions of education?" "How can we make school exciting for these children?"

In an effort to modify such behavioral characteristics and to extend the administrators' understandings of educational problems, the staff person working as a member of the group attempted to call attention to the major problem under consideration and to indicate how its solution rested upon a series of decisions on related topics. Effort was then made to have subgroups collect and use information pertinent to each sub-problem and to recommend a solution for each. Finally these solutions were examined to determine the most viable solution to the original problem.

Securing Information about a Problem

Conscious effort was also made to have local teams delay solutions to problems or the development of plans of action until an adequate informational base had been established. Techniques for encouraging the search for information varied according to the situation, but those which are described here are those generally employed.

1. Questioning: Whenever a staff member felt a local team was moving toward a "resolution" of a problem without adequate information, he tried to raise a question appropriate to the occasion which would elicit known data or acknowledgement of inadequate information. For example, one local team was at the point of deciding that all children in a particular grade would be regrouped into a remedial reading program. The question of how many of these children read below grade level brought forth an acknowledgement that no one knew. A survey of records in the Superintendent's office quickly revealed that fewer than 30 per cent were more than one year below grade level in reading achievement. Somewhat shamefaced, this team changed its decision. The "lesson" was referred to several times during the year. Someone would say "Let's get the facts on this before deciding."
2. Reading. A second method for introducing information was that of encouraging local teams to examine the literature related to a problem. Available to each team was a "traveling library" of some 147 volumes. The staff constantly sought to encourage the use of these volumes. For example, one local team was attempting to write job descriptions for each

position within their organization. As this task was explored, the group first began to recognize the need for illustrative materials. As such materials were studied, new questions arose which caused the appointment of sub-committees to examine the literature related to organizational and administrative theories. From this emerged an overall model with specific administrative responsibilities assigned to designated positions.

3. Illustrating. Frequently, a local team would become involved in a problem to which the project staff member could contribute his knowledge through the use of an illustration. For example, one local team wanted to evaluate their instructional program. Obviously, their awareness of the complexity of such a venture was limited. Consequently the staff member related the experiences he had had in such a venture in another school system. As he identified the various steps involved, as he related the amount of time, energy and resources required, the entire group recognized the fact that evaluation of an instructional program was, at that time, beyond their grasp, and, therefore, limited their efforts to only one small part of the problem.

4. Individual Conferences. From the bi-weekly working seminars, members of local leadership teams increasingly requested their project staff member to visit their schools or to set aside time for an individual conference. Such opportunities provided staff with a one-to-one opportunity to talk about the participant's work, to ask and to respond to questions and to explore concerns. Such opportunities were used as vehicles through which to introduce new ideas and to suggest or to provide reading materials. For example, one principal invited a staff member to observe his grouping of pupils. From this initial visit and subsequent conferences, the participant

came to see "grouping" as only a part of a larger problem. Subsequently, as the larger problem was examined, he was introduced to the "ungraded primary" and "team teaching" concepts. Intrigued, he read some ten books and many magazine articles related to initiating and implementing such concepts in a new school. He eventually proposed, and had approved by the superintendent and board of education, a planned program for selecting, orienting and training a staff for a new school incorporating adaptations of the ungraded concept and an intermediate grade program utilizing team teaching.

5. Telling. At times local teams would reach points where the project staff member would merely provide information from his own knowledge or experience. By such "telling" the staff was simultaneously introducing new information and creating an awareness of the availability of such information. Subsequently, requests for materials increased as new problems were identified and pursued.

6. Researching. The project staff early recognized that most local decisions were based on intuition or logic rather than established facts. Consequently, major efforts were exerted to demonstrate "researching" a problem as an effective procedure. Whenever a local team would become involved in a problem which obviously required the need for information which could only be obtained locally, the project staff member would attempt to assist them in establishing procedures for securing and treating data pertinent to that particular problem. For example, one district engaged in a study of their transportation system. With only their own impressions and experiences as guides, this local team was proposing major procedural changes which were predicted to reduce the overall transportation cost which they "knew" was too high. A very brief

cost analysis and projection study was suggested by the staff member. Data were collected and analyzed which refuted all the group's initial "impressions" and indicated that the proposed changes would not only increase costs but would decrease efficiency of operation.

Formulating Plans of Action.

Once a problem had been identified, defined, and data had been collected on it, each team moved to devise a plan for implementing or testing the plan. Obviously many problems occupying the local team's time did not mature to the point of producing a plan for their resolutions. Other problems had solutions proposed and subsequent action was taken with little attention given to planning for their implementation. However, those problems which the staff member felt could be used realistically as learning vehicles were kept before the group to the point that a planned procedure could be followed in their implementation. Following are the major procedures attempted to devising such plans:

1. Creating Dissatisfaction. This procedure was used initially in problem identification but more significantly it played a major role in the planning for modifications in existing procedures. Problems identified could be treated at an abstract level via discussion and/or information gathering and then dropped. However, to move to planning specific action to be taken required recognition of current inadequacies and the creation of a desire to do something about it.

   The project staff's "third-ear" technique occassionally enabled them to bring to focus several points of frustration, to recognize and identify these as expressions of the same parent problem about which the local team repeatedly stated something should be done and then to call attention to the fact that action could be taken which would deal with these several problems simultaneously. For example, one local team identified a host of problems ranging from a lack of identified objectives to a lack of administrative coordination and a lack of teacher effectiveness. These "irritant problems" were pointed up by a local participant as parts of the same problem -- lack of adequate job descriptions. Capitalizing on this, the staff member contributed to the group's dissatisfaction with the status quo by recalling previous discussions on the above problems and raising the question of whether or not this group felt strongly enough about such irritants as to do something about them. From this dissatisfaction subsequent job descriptions emerged, plans for their application developed and implemented.

Another staff member capitalized upon a number of "small gripes" or problems about in-service teacher education. In turn, the question was, are we just going to talk about these problems? What can we as adminstrators do to develop a coordinated program? This dissatisfaction led ultimately to the implementation of a year-long coordinated in-service education program designed specifically to assist teachers in improving their program in English.

2. Providing Support. Dissatisfaction can be created with relatively little effort; however, providing timely support to a group can be difficult. For example, when a team began to plan for change they invariably envisioned numerous attendant problems. Often this process portended abandonment of the original plan simply because the anticipated problems appeared to be insurmountable. This situation called for support

and encouragement from the staff member. More apropos, it called for staff analysis of these attendant problems so that the team could either elect to disregard them or anticipate ways of resolving them should they arise. For example, the team which developed the fore-mentioned job descriptions ultimately faced the question of how to use them. Apparently their desire was to apply such descriptions in evaluating the performance of personnel filling the various positions. Consequently, the group had to devise a plan which would anticipate and overcome such problems as: staff rejection of any form of evaluation, inconsistencies in using the job descriptions as evaluations, failure to evaluate ALL personnel, etcetera. Subsequently, the plan which was developed included specific procedures for a sequence of steps with teachers. These steps were as follows:

1. Each principal met with his staff to anlyze, discuss and modify job descriptions for teachers:
2. Modifications were made and the job descriptions were translated into evaluating instruments.
3. Special faculty meetings were held in which the central office staff, the project staff member and each school staff discussed the purposes of evaluation and the procedures to be used.
4. Each teacher first evaluated himself. Then each principal observed each teacher twice. (Some of the teachers with long tenure were observed for the first time in their careers.) After observation, the principal evaluated his work and then conferred with the teacher individually to compare evaluations,

to complement and to suggest modifications in behavior where needed.

5. Initial conferences were followed by further observations--evaluations and a final conference before the end of the year.
6. A teacher-administrator committee met during the summer to revise the instrument and to suggest modifications of the procedure.

The specific plans for each of the above steps sought to eliminate or reduce anticipated problems resulting from the introduction of a personnel evaluation program.

Assigning Responsibilities.

One of the frequent blocks in translating plans to action was the lack of clarity of responsibilities. The obvious uncertainty of roles and responsibilities was frequently used by the staff to encourage more definitive planning. Equally such role clarification was used as an opportunity to create an awareness that: (a) this group comprised the leadership team of a school district, (b) the district consisted of all the schools (c) each school was responsible to the district, (d) the district had to have a table of organization, (e) the table of organization designated positions because of the position's specific contributions to the district's achievement of its goals, and (f) assignment and clarification of these responsibilities were essential to the effectiveness of the organization as a whole.

Assessing Consequences of Actions Taken

Frequently these administrators rendered decisions and initiated specific actions with assessment of consequences being made only if such action generated overly negative reactions from the staff or the community. As part of the problem-solving procedure, the project staff consciously sought to help the administrators build in procedures for the assessment of plans of action. For example, the staff member who worked with the local team on the problem of improving the district's English program consciously sought to help them devise specific methods for determining the consequences of such an action. Included in the overall plan which they developed were means for:

a. Securing reactions from planning committees
b. Specific follow up faculty meetings in each school to secure teacher reactions
c. Production, by teachers, of an English guide
d. Determination of the extent to which the English guide was used
e. Factors of teaching to be observed by building principals
f. Specific sessions in which the entire local team was to pool its data and make composite assessments of the consequences as a base for planning for the activities for further development.

Working With Participants In Clinics And Conferences

The overall project design provided for the use of conferences and clinics to be used to attack specific problems. A total of six such clinics and conferences were held during the first nine months of the project. While each such clinic or conference was designed for specific purposes, each was equally planned to enhance the local district's identification with the project as a whole and to further the development of each local team's *expirit de corps.*

These conferences or clinics are briefly described below:

Orientation Conference (August 4,5, 1964 at Hazard, Kentucky).

As previously described, this conference was designed to orient participants to the project, to introduce them to the entire staff (including the four educators, the four behavioral science supportive staff members, and the research associates), to collect initial data for the research aspect of the project and to initiate plans of operation.

Clinic on School Administration (December 11, 12, 1964, at the University of Kentucky, Lexington.)

Due to the project staff's assessment of the participants' theoretical concepts of school administration and supported by the participants' expressed interest, this special clinic was planned to dispense information about the need for and nature of responsibilities of school administrators. The general framework of the clinic paralleled that of the staff's Paradigm of Administration.

The clinic centered around a series of six major lectures followed by discussion in larger and small groups. Lecture topics were as follows: (a) the Nature of Administration, (b) the Nature of Instructional Programs, (c) Concepts of Organization as Related to Administration and Instruction, (d) Personnel as Essentials to Organization's Effectiveness, (e) School-Community Relations and (f) Administrative Management. While these lectures were given by the four primary staff members, the behavioral science staff members and the research associates participated as discussants and chairmen of the sessions.

Basically this was a "telling" session in which the staff attempted to introduce new information in the hope that the participants would extend their levels of knowledge about administration, become dissatisfied with some of their current practices and envision modifications that would be helpful.

Progress Conference (February 20, 1965 at Hazard, Kentucky.)

This conference was designed again to build espirit de corps, to maintain identity with the project and to encourage each team in its endeavors. Each team was requested to prepare and present a thirty minute report on its project activities, including problems encountered, successes achieved and plans for extending its efforts. These presentations were followed by group discussions based on a suggested guide to elicit recognition of several factors related to administration as suggested in the paradigm. The composition of the discussion groups was purposefully predetermined by the staff to insure that each group's membership consisted of persons from all four districts and persons from each of several personality categories such as uninformed person, an informed person, a disinterested person, etc.

Progress-Planning Conference (May 22, 1965 at Hazard, Kentucky.)

As the academic year drew to a close, there existed a need to extend team commitments through the summer months and to collect additional research data. Thus, a conference was designed to have reports and discussions of each district's achievements and to share the various ways the four districts planned to work during the summer. Again, district and staff reports were followed by small cross-district discussion groups composed similarly to those described earlier. Again, as in all previous uses of small group discussions, group chairmen and recorders were selected from the participants for the purpose of giving them the opportunities to extend these skills.

Final Conference (December 11, 1965 at Hazard, Kentucky.)

During the Fall of 1965, the project staff attempted to "withdraw" or to reduce the intensity of its relationship with the four districts. As a part of that withdrawal process, a final conference was purposefully delayed until near the end of the project so that a final "break" would occur simultaneously with each local team in something of a "formal" atmosphere. Consequently, this conference was set as close to the Christmas Holidays as possible and was designed to review the shared experiences, to discuss the outcomes and conclusions and to examine ways staff and participants could work together in the future. This conference encompassed large groups with various participants making brief presentations followed by small groups where individual oral and written reactions were solicited.

Conferences-Clinics in Local Districts

In addition to the clinics and conferences for all participants, two special clinics were held in each of the districts.

The first series of these conferences was held in early Spring of 1965 and resulted from the fact that during the year each staff member had recognized a need for the entire staff to spend a day with the team for which he had primary responsibility. Each district's need, however, was differently expressed. In one district the special conference was designed to "stimulate dissatisfaction" with present procedures and to suggest obviously needed administrative modifications. In another district, the need was obviously that of responding to the local team's request for the staff's tentative assessments of their efforts to date. The third district's conference was designed to help analyze and develop additional plans for implementing their in-service education program. The conference for the other district focused largely on giving support and encouragement to their work in teacher evaluation.

The second series of staff-local team conferences occurred during the summer of 1965, lasting for one and a half days in each district. Unlike the first series, these conferences were planned primarily by the staff for the purpose of: (a) sharing and eliciting reactions to tentative conclusions drawn by the staff from its experiences and from the data and (b) projecting plans for the coming school year. Staff members made brief informal presentations which were immediately followed by group discussion designed primarily to solicit positive or negative reactions to the presentations. Following this, the local team presented its projected plans for the Fall. Interestingly, in each instance, the district's major concerns were reduced to a consideration of administrative involvement in developing the district's overall plan for Title I under the Elementary-Secondary Education Act. The project and local district staffs devised means for identifying and securing data needed for determining major needs and then turned their attention to devising plans for developing an umbrella plan so as to encompass each of these needs for which later special ESEA projects could be developed.

Summary

All procedures developed during this endeavor were influenced considerably by conditions set forth in the project's proposal. Such conditions provided the framework within which the staff clarified its own "beliefs" and established initial procedures for working in the field with the four teams of local school administrators.

As experience and data accrued, initial procedures were modified both in technique and in kind. Consequently each category of procedure fostered subprocedures or techniques. However, all such procedures were grouped under the seven following headings:

I. Developing the Staff

II. Developing Research Procedures

III. Initiating the Project

IV. Using Local Districts as Learning Laboratories

V. Using Bi-Weekly Working Seminars

VI. Using Problem-Solving as a Vehicle for Learning

VII. Conducting Conferences - Clinics

Procedures were developed for use in some fourteen different types of face-to-face interaction with the participants with the major focus upon the initial negotiation conferences, clinics, conferences, bi-weekly seminars, interviews and conferences with individuals. The staff's efforts were directed toward aiding the staff member to become intimately involved with the local administrative teams and their individual members in developing viable solutions to those problems of greatest local impact.

The dynamics of these procedures, while impossible to describe, can best be identified as those eminating from the general area of group process. One might say that the staff's behavior in the application of the identified procedures was that of an emerging leader in a group situation.

The staff's performance, while varied among its members and for an individual from situation to situation, was consciously directed by the following guidelines. The staff sought:

1. To extend its understanding of the environmental conditions under which these administrators worked.
2. To withhold value judgments and criticisms unless the situation demanded such.

3. To accept and understand the administrators as persons and as functioning school employees.
4. To capitalize upon and develop the local environment as a learning laboratory.
5. To adhere to the problem-centered or problem-solving approach in dealing with all situations.
6. To concentrate upon the development of the "team concept" through concerted "team" involvement in developing testable resolutions to common problems.
7. To attempt to establish a close working relationship - a partnership - with the administrators, i.e., to become a working member of the local administrative team.
8. To demonstrate, as nearly as possible, by their behavior (both as individuals and as a team) the characteristics being fostered in their relationship with the administrators.

In brief, as a developmental activity, the staff's operational procedures were quite different at the end than those initially used. These emerged and were modified as experiences and data were secured and analyzed. Consequently, the only constancies in procedure were directional and research. All others were undergoing continuous analysis and revision .

CHAPTER IV

CHANGES DURING THE PROJECT

Data for the measurement of changes were collected by questionnaires, Q-Sort instruments, and from staff observations. Those data which could be categorized or placed on a scale were treated statistically while the observational data are used in descriptive form. Observational data are, in a sense, considered as a validity check upon the quanitifiable materials.

Three important change areas are considered: (1) changes that occurred in the administrators' concepts of their jobs; (2) changes that occurred in the administrative procedures employed by the administrators in each of the four school districts and in the total sample; and (3) changes that occurred in the instructional programs of the schools in the four districts.

Data for the first area of change were collected with the Job Description Form, Problem Identification Instrument, Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, Leadership Q-Sort and the Educational Q-Sort. All information applicable to areas two and three was observational and descriptive. All data-collection devices were described in Chapter III.

Changes in Administrator's Job Concepts

The data collected by each of the questionnaire or Q-Sorts are considered separately in this section. The order in which these are attended is as listed above.

In each case the administrators responded to the material at the beginning of the project and again near the end of the work. The change, then, is measured by the differences between these two scores. Wherever possible these differences will be treated statistically to determine the significance of difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores.

The Job Description Form

The Job Description Form was used to obtain information about the administrators' perceptions of their jobs. This open-ended questionnaire allowed the administrator to respond in his own fashion to a series of introductory phrases designed to obtain descriptions of perceptions of their jobs in the areas of Instructional Program, School Organization, Personnel, Community Relations, and Management. The responses were assigned to one of these five categories. The number of responses in each category for the pre-test was then compared with the number on the post-test. Chi-square was used to determine the independence of these two sets of responses. Since the IBM 1740 reports these findings as a total Chi-square from the matrix, significance of differences between proportion of responses in the various categories were determined by the use of an abac or computation of a t-test.

The total number of responses given by the administrators in each school district are used for entries in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4. Thus the number used for computations indicated the number of responses. The number of respondents is indicated in the table heading.

Responses from all school administrators are combined for Table 5.

Changes in all categories for administrators in District 1 were not significantly different when the pre-test responses are compared with the post-test responses. None of the differences between proportion is significant.

It should be noted, however, that there were shifts in the frequencies with which administrators in District 1 described their job tasks. There was a minor decrease (7) in the number of tasks assigned. Also there was

TABLE 1
JOB TASKS AS DERIVED FROM THE JOB DESCRIPTION FORM
FOR SIXTEEN ADMINISTRATORS IN
DISTRICT 1

	Pre		Post		
Category	Number of Tasks	Percent of Total	Number of Tasks	Percent of Total	Total Number
Instructional Program	19	14	12	9	31
School Organization	11	8	14	11	25
Personnel	22	16	15	12	37
Community Relations	8	6	3	2	11
Management	74	55	83	65	157
Totals	134		127		261

$x^2 = 5.84$ .05 with 4 df's

a between-category shift from Instructional Program, Community Relations, and Personnel to School Organization and Management. Again, these may be only chance shifts created by the time lapse between the administration of the instrument.

The chi-square of 14.80 obtained from data in Table 2 is significant beyond the five percent level. This would indicate that there are differences in category frequencies between the pre-test and the post-test that are not attributable to chance. When the differences between proportions are tested it is found that only the difference in the Personnel category is significant.

TABLE 2
JOB TASKS AS DERIVED FROM THE JOB DESCRIPTION FORM
TWENTY-ONE ADMINISTRATORS IN
DISTRICT 2

	Pre		Post		
Category	Number of Tasks	Percent of Total	Number of Tasks	Percent of Total	Total Number
Instructional Program	40	20	31	16	71
School Organization	14	7	27	14	41
Personnel	42	21	19	9	61
Community Relations	14	7	16	8	30
Management	92	45	105	53	197
Totals	202		198		400

$x^2 = 14.80$ .05 with 4 df's

It can then be assumed that this difference has contributed most to the signifance of chi-square and that these administrators changed their job concepts significantly in the Personnel category. In all other categories changes could have been chance responses.

When the entries in Table 3 are considered, the chi-square (11.74) is significant beyond the level specified for this study. The most dramatic aspect of Table 3 is the great increase in entries which indicate the perception of many more aspects of the job for the administrator. However, when the differences between proportions are considered the only significant

TABLE 3
JOB TASKS AS DERIVED FROM THE JOB DESCRIPTION FORM FOR NINETEEN ADMINISTRATORS IN DISTRICT 3

	Pre		Post		
Category	Number of Tasks	Percent of Total	Number of Tasks	Percent of Total	Total Number
Instructional Program	24	26	48	17	72
School Organization	12	13	39	14	51
Personnel	9	10	71	25	80
Community Relations	5	5	18	6	23
Management	42	46	108	38	150
Totals	92		284		376

$x^2 = 11.745$ .05 with 4 df's

change is in Personnel category. Observational data from District 3 was carefully considered and revealed that this increased number of responses was reflected in practice. Therefore it is concluded that these administrators became more adept at defining their jobs and that their construct of school administration had become more comprehensive.

The changes in responses for administrators in District 4 is significant beyond the five percent level (Chi-square = 11.49). When the differences between proportions are considered, School Organization and Management show significant differences. It should be noted that there was an increase in the tasks assigned to School Organization and a decrease in Management when the

TABLE 4
JOB TASKS AS DERIVED FROM THE JOB DESCRIPTION FORM FOR EIGHT ADMINISTRATORS IN DISTRICT 4

Category	Pre Number of Tasks	Pre Percent of Total	Post Number of Tasks	Post Percent of Total	Total Number
Instructional Program	16	23	13	16	29
School Organization	3	4	15	18	18
Personnel	9	13	16	19	25
Community Relations	5	7	9	11	14
Management	38	53	30	36	68
Totals	71		83		154

$x^2 = 11.49$ .05 with 4 df's

two data collection times are compared. This along with observational data would indicate some realignment of job concepts since the total did not change radically.

The chi-square computed from entries obtained from all administrators in all districts is significant beyond the five percent level. Thus, there is an acceptable degree of independence between the pre-test responses and the post-test responses that indicates a true difference. Investigation of the difference between proportions indicates that the entries in Instructional Program and School Organization are significantly different. In Personnel,

TABLE 5
JOB TASKS AS DERIVED FROM THE JOB DESCRIPTION FORM FOR SIXTY-FOUR ADMINISTRATORS IN ALL DISTRICTS

Category	Pre Number of Tasks	Pre Percent of Total	Post Number of Tasks	Post Percent of Total	Total Number
Instructional Program	99	20	104	15	203
School Organization	40	8	95	14	135
Personnel	82	16	121	17	203
Community Relations	32	6	46	7	78
Management	246	49	326	47	572
Totals	499		692		1,119

$x^2 = 12.75$ .05 with 4 df's

Community Relations, and Management the proportions did not differ significantly. The increase in the total number of responses would indicate that the administrators either became more aware of, or sophisticated in, task definition. It should be remembered that the major portion of this increase was in District 3. All other districts tended to report approximately the same number of job descriptions with shifts among the categories.

Perhaps a clear picture of the changes within and among districts can be seen in Table 6. There the districts are listed together with an indication of the significance between proportions indicated by a ≠ for differences significant beyond the 5 percent level and a - for all that were not significant.

TABLE 6
INDICATION OF THE SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST FOR EACH SCHOOL DISTRICT AND THE TOTAL NUMBER OF ADMINISTRATORS

Categories	District 1	2	3	4	Total
Instructional Program	-	-	-	-	+
School Organization	-	-	-	+	+
Personnel	-	+	+	-	-
Community Relationship	-	-	-	-	-
Management	-	-	-	+	-

From Table 6 it is clearly evident that changes did occur that can be considered significant in three of the districts. When the responses are added across the table it is also evident that some differences did not warrant significance within districts but were important as a total. This is true only in the Instructional Program categories. It is interesting to note that when all schools and the total are considered, there were changes in all except one category. Observational data also indicate that significant changes occurred in all categories except in the Community Relationship aspect of the administrators' job.

Another evidence of change within the individual districts and the total group was obtained by computing the rho correlation coefficient (rank order correlation). For District 1 the correlation between the five categories as ranked for the pre-test and for the post-test was .90, District 2 the correlation was .66, District 3 the correlation .70, for District 4 the correlation was .50, and for the total group the correlation was .90. Thus it is evident that while the proportions of responses in the categories did not vary with much significance, the order in which the quantities of responses were assigned to the categories did show some fluctuation in District 1 and in the total group with a medium amount of fluctuation in Districts 2, 3, and 4.

The following summary statements seem applicable when all the data from the Job Description Form are considered.

1. The administrators as a total group seem to have developed a greater understanding of the considerable array of tasks confronting school administrators. This is verified by the greater number of tasks that they were able to list at the close of the project.
2. Districts represented by data in Tables 2 and 3 seem to have developed a greater awareness of the necessity for reassignment of tasks in the Personnel area. The administrators in District 2 decreased the tasks assigned to this area while in District 3 an increased amount of attention was given to Personnel.
3. District 4 administrators shifted their responses significantly from the Management to the School Organization category.
4. When all administrators are considered, there were changes in the frequency of task assignment in the Instructional Programs and the School Organization categories. These changes were both in the form of increased assignment.

5. When districts are considered singly, there was little or no change in assignment of tasks in the Instructional category. Considered as a total group, there was a significant change. It should be noted that this change was created by the larger number of tasks considered in the post-test since there were only 5 additional entries in this category.
6. The School Organization category more than doubled in size. This difference was significant when the total group is considered and when District 4 is considered separately.
7. In the total construct of school administration, these persons seem to perceive relatively few tasks for themselves in work with the community. In no school district nor for the total was there significant differences in responses in the Community Relations category.
8. In each district and in the total group of districts, the lack of a perfect correlation between the beginning job concepts and those at completion of the project indicates shifts within the listings. Since any administrative position does have a totality, this is probably the most significant indication of change. These administrators, when they looked at the total job of a school administrative officer, did reassign some of their original job concepts at the completion of the project. Observational data also indicated that these administrators did alter certain of their job concepts during this project.

Problems Identification Instrument

The Problems Identification Instrument (PII) was used to collect information about self-identified, job-related problems. Sixty-three administrators responded to this Instrument at both the beginning and again at the close of the project.

Table 7, on the following page, shows an analysis of the responses to the PII in terms of the frequency of problems identified in relation to seven aspects of school administration: Finance, Personnel, Community Conditions, Instructional Program, Pupils, Management, and Physical Facilities.

The chi-square (12.28) is not significant for this table. Differences between proportions also do not yield significant results. The most obvious feature of Table 7 is the increased number of problems (561 to 813) identified by these persons, pre to post. This would seem to indicate that the range of vision concerning school administration had expanded during the project; consequently, more problems were perceived. An alternative, or addendum, to this interpretation would be that the administrators had also become more adept in problem identification. Either alternative, or a combination, would seem to imply evidence of professional growth on the part of the administrators. It could be hypothesized that the administrators were better able to give the researchers what they appeared to want from them, e.g. see more problems. This, of course, only emphasizes the need for control data.

One factor which remained relatively unaltered, to the disappointment of the project staff, was the degree of personal identity of the individual administrator with the problems he described. Analyses of both pre and post statements reflect problems which were patently external, or non-personal,

TABLE 7
PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED VIA THE PROBLEMS IDENTIFICATION INSTRUMENT FOR SIXTY-THREE ADMINISTRATORS IN ALL DISTRICTS

	Pre		Post		
Category	Frequency	Percent of Total	Frequency	Percent of Total	Total
Related to Finance	31	5	46	6	77
Related to Personnel	139	25	228	28	367
Related to Community Conditions	90	16	133	16	223
Related to Instructional Program	99	18	107	13	206
Related to Pupils	23	4	18	2	41
Related to Management	134	24	194	24	328
Related to Physical Facilities	45	8	87	11	132
Totals	561		813		1,394
		$x^2 = 12.08$	.05 with 6 df's		

to the administrators. The tendency was to cite such problems as "Teachers do not wish to engage in in-service activities on their own time," or, "The local tax effort is too low," and not report such statements as "I have a problem in learning how to stimulate teachers so that they will involve themselves in in-service activities," or, "I need to find ways of communicating school needs so that the community will provide adequate tax support." Perhaps eighteen months is too short a time to expect major changes in such perceptions to occur.

Table 7 also reveals a decrease in the percentage of problems in the Related to Instructional Program category. An examination of the problem statements indicated that many of the pre-test statements were oriented to problems which are more properly in the domain of the teacher and only tangentially related to the administrative function. For example, "Disciplining children in the lunchroon," is obviously the teacher's responsibility. The post-testing ommission of many of these kinds of problems would account for most of this percentage decrease.

The increased percentage of problems Related to Personnel was brought about largely because of increases in this category in Districts 3 and 4. (Tables 10 and 11). In these two districts, particularly, there seemed to be an increased awareness that the school should be an efficiently functioning enterprise; therefore, the personnel of that enterprise should be efficient. This view, of course, would tend to create problems related to personnel. This is not to imply that Districts 1 and 2 were not concerned about efficiency; they merely exhibited this concern in identifying other types of problems.

As a total group, the administrators would seem to have changed little in relationship to identifying problems Related to Community Conditions. Again, Table 7 obscures such change in the separate districts. Districts 1 and 2 (Tables 9 and 10) show a slight gain in percentage in this respect, while Districts 3 and 4 (Tables 10 and 11) show a smaller percentage of such problems.

The same phenomenon is true in terms of problems Related to Management. Table 7 shows no percentage change, while Table 8 (District 1) shows a great percentage increase in this regard, and Tables 9 and 10 (Districts 2 and 3) show a decreased percentage of such problems.

The frequency distributions for each district are shown in Tables 8, 9, 10, and 11. Only in District 1 are these frequencies significantly different between the two data collection times. This difference was cancelled out in Table 7 where data were consolidated.

TABLE 8
PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED WITH THE PROBLEMS IDENTIFICATION
INSTRUMENT OF SIXTEEN ADMINISTRATORS IN
DISTRICT 1

	Pre		Post		
Category	Frequency	Percent of Total	Frequency	Percent of Total	Total
Related to Finance	8	7	11	9	19
Related to Personnel	47	39	56	27	103
Related to Community Conditions	17	14	31	15	48
Related to Instructional Program	21	17	23	11	44
Related to Pupils	8	7	6	3	14
Related to Management	14	12	62	30	76
Related to Physical Facilities	6	5	16	8	22
Totals	121		205		326

$x^2 = 19.07$ .05 with 6 df's

TABLE 9
PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED WITH THE PROBLEMS IDENTIFICATION INSTRUMENT FOR TWENTY-ONE ADMINISTRATORS IN DISTRICT 2

Category	Pre		Post		Total
	Frequency	Percent of Total	Frequency	Percent of Total	Number
Related to Finance	4	2	11	5	15
Related to Personnel	28	16	50	21	78
Related to Community Conditions	25	14	46	20	71
Related to Instructional Program	30	17	32	14	62
Related to Pupils	10	6	8	3	18
Related to Management	70	40	75	32	145
Related to Physical Facilities	9	5	11	5	20
Totals	176		233		409

$x^2 = 8.75$ .05 with 6 df's

TABLE 10
PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED WITH THE PROBLEMS IDENTIFICATION INSTRUMENT FOR EIGHTEEN ADMINISTRATORS IN DISTRICT 3

	Pre		Post		Total
Category	Frequency	Percent of Total	Frequency	Percent of Total	Number
Related to Finance	14	7	15	6	29
Related to Personnel	48	24	86	32	134
Related to Community Conditions	34	17	39	15	73
Related to Instructional Program	37	18	39	15	76
Related to Pupils	3	2	2	1	5
Related to Management	40	20	37	14	77
Related to Physical Facilities	23	12	49	18	72
Totals	199		267		466

$x^2 = 11.18$ .05 with 6 df's

TABLE 11
PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED WITH THE PROBLEMS IDENTIFICATION INSTRUMENT FOR EIGHT ADMINISTRATORS IN DISTRICT 4

Category	Pre		Post	
	Frequency	Percent of Total	Frequency	Percent of Total
Related to Finance	5	8	9	8
Related to Personnel	16	25	36	33
Related to Community Conditions	14	22	17	16
Related to Instructional Program	11	17	13	13
Related to Pupils	2	3	2	2
Related to Management	10	15	20	19
Related to Physical Facilities	7	11	11	10
Totals	65		108	

$x^2 = 3.03$ .05 with 6 df's

The following statements seem valid when the responses to the Problems Identification Instrument are considered:

1. There was an increase in the total number of items checked for all categories when the total group of administrators is considered. This increase did not shift responses between categories in such a way that a significant difference resulted.
2. Only responses from administrators in District 1 were significantly different on the pre and post-testing. This significant difference is generated by the great increase in the number of responses in the "Related to Management" category.
3. Either there was little change in the administrators or the PII is not sensitive enough to measure the changes. These results might be explained by the language of the instrument.
4. Only one difference between proportions was significant. This one appeared in the responses to the "Related to Management" category for District 1 administrators.

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) enabled the administrators to respond to items which checked two characteristics related to the job concepts which guide their behavior and performance: their concepts of structure (S), and their concepts of consideration of people (C) as these are related to school administration. The LOQ treats these two factors independently, thus an individual may score high on both, low on both, or high on one and low on the other.

Table 12 shows the median performance of the administrators in each district and the total group for whom both pre and post data were available when median scores are converted to percentiles using the Educational Supervisors norms.

TABLE 12

PERCENTILES FOR MEAN SCORES FOR ADMINISTRATORS IN EACH DISTRICT AND THE TOTAL GROUP FOR THE STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION SCORES OF THE LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRE AND POST-TESTING

District	N	Structure		Consideration	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
1	16	75	69	25	5
2	19	71	75	25	25
3	19	55	73	28	20
4	8	40	71	50	50
Total	62	69	73	28	20

Three of the four groups of administrators and the total group show an increased number of responses which are in line with the norm groups' responses when the Structure score is considered. Only District 1 had fewer congruent responses than the norm group. When the Consideration scores are studied it is evident that the change is slight. Means, standard deviations, correlations and t-tests were computed for all these data. The results are shown in Tables 13 and 14 on the following pages.

TABLE 13

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, SIGNIFICANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCES, AND CORRELATIONS FOR STRUCTURE SCORE OF THE LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ADMINISTRATORS IN EACH DISTRICT AND FOR TOTAL GROUP

District	N	Test Time	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation	t-test
1	16	Pre	48.9	4.95		
		Post	45.8	6.47	.64*	2.46*
2	19	Pre	47.5	9.47		
		Post	48.8	10.37	.84*	-1.03
3	19	Pre	43.4	6.42		
		Post	48.4	7.85	.44*	-3.32*
4	8	Pre	40.5	3.12		
		Post	46.6	8.18	.02 (rho)	none
Total	62	Pre	45.7	7.48		
		Post	47.6	8.28	.59*	-2.04

---

*Significant beyond the five percent level.

TABLE 14

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, SIGNIFICANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCES, AND CORRELATIONS FOR THE CONSIDERATION SCORE OF THE LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ADMINISTRATORS IN EACH DISTRICT AND TOTAL GROUP

District	N	Test Time	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation	t-test
1	16	Pre	58.2	6.68		
		Post	54.4	7.75	.59*	2.36*
2	19	Pre	58.2	5.05		
		Post	58.0	5.29	.73*	.14
3	19	Pre	58.7	5.95		
		Post	57.4	5.57	.64*	.98
4	8	Pre	61.5	5.68		
		Post	62.4	5.06	.52 (rho)	
Total	62	Pre	58.8	5.96		
		Post	57.45	6.64	.64*	1.91

*Significant beyond the five percent level.

Data in Table 13 indicate that the administrators in one district (District 1) lowered the number of responses which agreed with the key on the Structure section of the LOQ when the post-test was administered. This difference is significant beyond the five percent level of confidence. In all other districts the direction of the t-test was toward the post-test scores; thus, an increase in agreement with the norm group was found. Two of these differences are significant (District 3 and Total Group). Perhaps the most important finding here is the significant difference between means for the Total Group. To the degree that the LOQ measures job concepts, these data are significant.

When the Consideration Score of the LOQ is studied the only significant mean difference was found in the scores for District 1 administrators. This difference was in favor of the pre-test. As can be seen in Table 14 the Consideration scores for three districts (1, 2, 3) and the Total Group all decreased between pre and post-testing.

Data from the LOQ seem to warrant the following conclusions:

1. Administrators in District 1 decreased the number of responses on the pre and post-test for both the Structure and Consideration sections of the test. Both differences were significant.
2. Administrators in Districts 2 and 4 increased the number of responses for the Structure part of the LOQ; however these differences were not significant. On the Consideration portion of the LOQ there were only minor changes. None was significant.
3. Administrators in District 3 increased their responses significantly on the Structure portion but not on the Consideration part of the LOQ.

4. As a total group the Administrators increased significantly their responses on the Structure test. There was a general but not significant decrease of responses to the Consideration portion of the LOQ.
5. One general purpose of this project was to increase the administrator's awareness of problems related to the structure and function of the school. To the extent that the items on the LOQ reflect these purposes, the conclusion that changes did occur is valid in light of the significant differences between means on the Structure part of the LOQ.
6. The generally higher correlations between the two Consideration scores imply less changes in rank among these scores than those obtained from the Structure section. This finding would be in line with Conclusion 5. Since little effort was made to affect change in this part of the administrator's concepts of his role, little change would be expected if the instrument has reliability.

Job Concepts as Derived from the Leadership Q-Sort

The perceptions one has of himself, his ideal, and other people undoubtedly influence his behavior. As Bills has stated: "What we do is consistent with our beliefs about the world in which we live."[1] Of course, such perceptions or beliefs are extremely difficult to measure. Behavior is observable; the causes of behavior can only be inferred; however, the process of inference can be strengthened by the use of logical and rational methodology in obtaining and interpreting data which relate to casual factors.

---

[1] Robert E. Bills, "About People and Teaching," Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Vol. XXVIII, No. 2, p. 5.

Certain geographic, political, financial and cultural peculiarities are arrayed against the school administrator in this region. The constant struggle against such unfavorable conditions as inadequate finances, cultural isolation, and the adverse publicity being circulated via the newspapers, television, and other news media must inevitably affect the self-image of any goal seeking administrator. On the other hand, the administrator must have positive perceptions of himself as a successful practitioner if he is to maintain his own equilibrium and continue to provide leadership to battle such unfavorable odds. If the consistent lack of "success" is damaging to an individual's perceptions of himself as a productive administrator, then his only alternative is to gear down his level of aspirations to the point where "success" can be attained. This would appear to be a possible explanation of the dearth of administrative effort to introduce educational innovations in this region.

The project staff felt that reliable data should be sought concerning the manner in which the administrators perceived themselves and others. The Leadership Q-Sort, described in Chapter III, was used to obtain these data.

Table 15, on the folllowing page, shows the changes that occurred in each district group in relationship to perceptions of self, ideal, and ordinary people as derived from the use of the Leadership Q-Sort.

Table 15 displays the coefficients of correlation when the data for all the administrators in each district group were averaged or composited, thereby treating the group as one hypothetical person. Thus SC_1 represents the group composite on the Self data at the time of the pre-test; SC_2 represents the group composite on the Self data at the time of the post-test; and SC_1/SC_2 represents the pre-test data correlated against the post-test data with a resultant coefficient of correlation.

TABLE 15

PRE TO POST CHANGES, BY DISTRICT GROUPS, IN CONCEPTS OF SELF, IDEAL, AND THE ORDINARY PERSON AS DERIVED FROM THE LEADERSHIP Q-SORT

District	N	SC_1/SC_2	IC_1/IC_2	OC_1/OC_2
1	14	.86	.84	.67
2	18	.80	.83	.63
3	17	.90	.85	.47
4	7	.70	.57	.18
Mean	56	.82	.80	.51

Table 15, would seem to indicate that District 4 administrators changed the most in all three factors: Self, Ideal, and Ordinary person. (The lower the coefficient of correlation, the greater the degree of change.) District 3 changed the least in relationship to Self and to Ideal yet changed more than either District 1 or 2 in terms of perceptions of the Ordinary Person. All District groups experienced the most change in perceptions of the Ordinary Person.

Using the data in Table 15, it would be reasonable to assume that perceptions of Self were not significantly altered during the project; that the administrators, as a total group, see themselves in about the same perspective as they did in August, 1964. Likewise, except for District 4, perceptions of the Ideal person were relatively unaltered.

Unfortunately, the Leadership Q-Sort does not provide data concerning the direction of change (e.g. whether the change in perceptions of the Ordinary Person meant that a greater or lesser value was being placed on the Ordinary Person), but merely points out the degree of change. While an item analysis might conceivably have provided some cues about the direction of change, this technique was not employed because the staff has sufficient recorded observations of these individuals to provide this information. These staff observations will be discussed in the latter portion of this chapter.

The Leadership Q-Sort also yields measures of relationship between Self perceptions and perceptions of the Ideal, between Self and the Ordinary Person, and between the Ideal and the Ordinary Person. Table 16, on the following page, presents a picture of these relationships, by district groups.

Table 16 shows that the administrators in District 1 perceive themselves (S) as being not very different from their perceptions of the Ideal Person (I) at the time of pre-testing (r of S/I = .78). At the time of post-test, this relationship had not been altered (r of S/I, Post, = .78). District 1 also evidenced no change in relationship between Self (S) and the Ordinary Person (O) when the pre and post test responses were correlated; however, the r of .51 in both instances would seem to indicate that they perceived themselves in lesser relationship to the Ordinary Person than they did of themselves to the Ideal (.78). In the case of their perceptions to

TABLE 16

PRE TO POST CHANGES IN INTERRELATIONSHIPS OF PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, IDEAL, AND THE ORDINARY PERSON AS DERIVED FROM THE LEADERSHIP Q-SORT

DISTRICT COMPOSITES

		S/I		S/O		I/O	
District*	N.	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
1	14	.78	.78	.51	.51	.64	.55
2	18	.59	.70	.31	.49	.33	.64
3	17	.67	.63	.52	.35	.60	.43
4	7	.40	.50	.16	.19	.22	.29
	Mean r	.63	.66	.39	.40	.47	.49

*N = 56

Ordinary Person (I/O), some change from pre to post testing is evident (I/O Pre r = .64, I/O post r = .55). Therefore, an analysis of these coefficients would tend to suggest that their perceptions of themselves (S) and their Ideal (I) remained relatively unchanged during the project, while some change in perceptions of the Ordinary Person (O) did occur. The remainder of Table 16 can be interpreted using the same process.

Table 16 would seem to provide data from which several conclusions could be inferred:

1. These four groups of administrators differ in terms of perceptions of themselves, their ideal leader, and other people when Q-Sort data are correlated in any combination.

2. The District 1 group changed their perceptions most in terms of how they view other people. (This is also supported by the data in Table 16.)
3. The District 2 group, in all three relationships, changed toward greater convergence of perceptions, S/I, S/O, and I/O. This seems to indicate that they now see themselves, their ideal leader, and other people in a closer relationship.
4. The District 3 group appears to have changed most in terms of their perceptions of other people.
5. The District 4 group seem to indicate that they are not like other people, nor are other people like their ideal.

The Leadership Q-Sort data were analyzed also in terms of changes in perceptions of the administrators in position groups. For example, all superintendents were grouped into a single composite profile, as were assistant superintendents, supervisors, directors of pupil personnel, elementary principals, high school principals, assistant principals, and a group (Other) which was composed of administrative personnel outside the above categories. Table 17 displays the response data on all the administrators, by such position groups.

Table 17, on the following page, shows that the following perceptual changes apparently were made during the project:

1. The superintendents made the most change in Self and Ideal perceptions.
2. The assistant principals changed the most in terms of their perceptions of other people.

3. The elementary principals changed the least in all three categories.
4. More change is evident in all groups in relationship to the perceptions of other people.

TABLE 17

PRE TO POST CHANGES, BY POSITION GROUPS, IN PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, IDEAL, AND THE ORDINARY PERSON AS DERIVED FROM THE LEADERSHIP Q-SORT

Position Group	N	SC_1/SC_2	IC_1/IC_2	OC_1/OC_2
Superintendents	2	.46	.53	.24
Assistant Superintendents	3	.70	.61	.32
Supervisors	8	.76	.80	.30
Director Pupil Personnel	6	.57	.61	.33
Elementary Principals	24	.87	.83	.60
High School Principals	5	.75	.81	.58
Assistant Principals	4	.67	.65	.04
Other	4	.83	.78	.56

Thus the Leadership Q-Sort revealed, in all the above analyses, that the administrators in all four districts, and in all position groups, experienced the greatest change in terms of the way they view other people. This is a significant finding inasmuch as most preparation programs, pre and in-service, for school administrators would appear to be designed to extend the individual's vision of the ideal so that he might have a model toward which he might direct his efforts. In such programs, therefore, Self and Ideal become beacons for improvement. The practice of school administration, however, is basically dependent upon the relationship of the administrator to other people. The perceptions an administrator has of other people undoubtedly influence his behavior in the performance of his job.

Job Concepts Derived from the Purposes of Education Q-Sort

An essential element among the job concepts which serve to guide the behavior and performance of an administrator is his perception of the purposes of education. Most pre-service preparation programs include some study of the purposes toward which the school should move its pupils; however, in-service preparation programs quite frequently deal with task performance rather than the theoretical factor of educational purposes. This is particularly true in the geographic region in which this project was implemented. When the basic needs associated with buildings, equipment, personnel, etcetera, are so urgent and overwhelming, the typical administrator has little time or inclination to expend his energy in the clarification of the purposes of education. As one rather experienced principal said, after responding to the Purposes of Education Q-Sort, "It has been a long time since I have given much real thought to the purposes of education."

In an attempt to obtain a profile of how these administrators perceived some rather frequently enunciated purposes of education, the project staff administered the Purposes of Education Q-Sort on both pre and post bases. (This instrument was described in Chapter III.) Table 18 shows some of the change which occurred in this respect.

TABLE 18

PRE TO POST CHANGES IN PERCEPTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES AS DERIVED FROM THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION Q-SORT DISTRICT COMPOSITES

District	N	PC_1/PC_2
1	16	.81
2	20	.77
3	18	.85
4	7	.72
Mean		.79

Table 18 shows that relatively little change occurred, pre to post, in the perceptions these administrators had about the purposes of education. District 4 changed the most (.72), while District 3 changed the least (.85).

When these data are analyzed by job, or position, groups, more change is evident. Table 19 displays these data.

Table 19, on the following page, shows the coefficients of correlation between pre and post administration of this instrument in terms of position composites. It should be noted that of the eight position groups, the superintendents appear to have changed their perceptions the most, and the elementary principals the least. This parallels the data from the Leadership Q-Sort (See Table 18) in which the superintendents changed the most in terms of Self and Ideal, and the elementary principals changed the least in all

TABLE 19

PRE TO POST CHANGES IN PERCEPTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES, BY POSTION GROUPS, AS DERIVED FROM THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION Q-SORT

Position Group	N	PC_1/PC_2
Superintendents	4	.45
Assistant Superintendents	3	.73
Supervisors	8	.74
Director of Pupil Personnel	7	.62
Elementary Principals	23	.82
High School Principals	6	.79
Assistant Principals	6	.74
Other	4	.66
Mean		.70

three factors. This phenomonon may, in part, be due to the small N of superintendents, and the relatively large N of elementary principals; however, staff observations would tend to indicate that these changes actually took place in these people.

The above data lead to the conclusion that some change did indeed occur in the perceptions of these administrators about the purposes of education.

Job Concepts as Derived from Staff Observations

The Job Description Form, the Problems Identification Instrument, the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, the Leadership Q-Sort, and the Purposes of Education Q-Sort yielded data on job concepts which were quantifiable. That is, the data permitted some statistical interpretations. This section, and similarly labeled sections to follow, will present data based upon the recorded observations of the project staff.

The following is a listing of job concepts of the administrators as derived from staff observations which, in the judgement of the staff, support the conclusion that some change occurred during the life of the project. The basic data were derived from the numerous personal contacts the four staff members had with the 69 administrators, and the job concepts were then extrapolated or interpolated from these recorded data. Each job concept is presented as a statement which seemed representative of the total group at the time the project was initiated, and only those concepts which changed, and which, in the staff's judgment were in need of modification, are presented. Therefore, the statements may appear to be negatively oriented. The direction and degree of change will be presented by supporting illustrations or "Staff Comment."

1. "The efficiency of a school administrator is inversely related to the number of problems with which he is confronted; the fewer the problems, the more efficient he is."

Staff Comment -- The initial reluctance, or inability, of the administrators to identify their problems, and the subsequent change in this was illustrated in the total number of problems identified in the PII: 561 pre and 813 post. This difference, plus a difference in the kinds of problems identified, would seem to indicate that the above concept underwent some change. Inasmuch as the central operational ploy of the project was to identify and resolve problems, this seemed to reduce the administrators' feeling that there is a stigma attached to having problems. However, the staff saw little change in the administrators' reluctance to identify their problems in which they would be admitting that they had needs of an internalized, personal nature. Rare indeed would one hear, "I need to learn more about. . . ." Instead, the statement of a problem would ordinarily be about some external need, such as, "The community should support the school to a greater extent." The change, then, was in the administrators' sensitivity to problems and willingness to acknowledge them so long as they related to areas other than themselves.

2. "Written job descriptions are unnecessary for effective administrative teamwork."

Staff Comment -- In one district this concept was quite drastically modified; written job descriptions for each administrative position were actually produced. In a second district, some change was evident as an attempt was made to write job descriptions as recommendations for the formulation of board of education policies. No appreciable change relative to job descriptions was apparent in the two remaining districts.

3. "Instructional goals are to be defined by the teacher, requiring little, if any, attention and effort on the part of the administrator."

Staff Comment -- Except for one district, there is only slight evidence to suggest that there was more than minor modification in this concept. Though the specific needs of students in this region are almost overwhelmingly obvious and acknowledged even by these administrators, they apparently still feel that the classroom teacher will by some magical formula recognize these and, without administrative assistance, will take appropriate action to meet them. In the one district where the concept was changed, the major focus of the project was in terms of developing more adequate instructional goals in English.

4. "The management of auxiliary services -- lunchrooms, transportation, etcetera -- is the primary task of the administrator."

Staff Comment -- Staff observations concerning this concept may appear to be in conflict with the data treated in Table 5 which shows that, as a total group, there was relatively little change in the percentage of tasks listed in the Job Description Form, pre to post. However, the data presented in that table show what the administrators do and not what they believe they should do. Actually, there was considerable evidence to show that these persons made rather dramatic modifications in this concept. For instance, the principal focus of effort in two of the districts, and this was largely determined by them, was exerted toward resolving problems that were clearly in the domain of instruction and had little to do with "management."

5. "The evaluation of instructional program outcomes is primarily the function of the teacher."

Staff Comment -- The initial assessment which led to the development of the above statement was supported by numerous examples of behavior by these administrators. In retrospect it would appear that this concept was predicted on the assumption that "instructional program outcomes" can be equated with "academic or subject-matter outcomes." For example, on many occasions some groups were caustically critical of the "welfarism" apathy in increasing proportions among their students, and for which they blamed almost every institution and agency in their communities except the school. This feeling, however, apparently began to shift, though the degree of change may be only slight. For instance, in one district there was developed a personnel evaluation instrument which included items that forced the administrator to consider the instructional program outcomes not only in relation to the "academic" program, but also in terms of student attitudes, community support, and other goals of a similar character.

6. "The provision for the professional growth of a school staff is of less importance in improving instruction than is the provision of more materials, better buildings, and other tools of learning."

Staff Comment -- The in-service teacher education activities in all the districts had been confined largely to two or three days of district-wide effort. In no instance did the staff find any special or unique provision for an in-depth continuation or "follow-up" of efforts begun during the two or three days. More pertinently, there was little evidence to indicate that the school principals felt that they should provide in-service growth opportunities for their respective staffs. Rather, they seemed to believe that in-service education was almost exclusively a district, not a school, function. During the project, and most probably because of project related activities, there was some change in this concept in at least three of the districts. As one principal stated at the conclusion of the project, "I hadn't really felt that in-service teacher education was my job, but the supervisor's."

7. "Classroom visitation is the primary technique of instructional supervision."

Staff Comment -- The equating of instructional supervision with classroom visitation was a prevalent concept among these administrators. Though the Kentucky Department of Education regulations specify that at least fifty per cent of a principal's time must be spent in supervision, this was considered to be largely of a managerial nature. During the project, this concept seemed to change as the administrators became involved in project stimulated activities and began to develop other techniques for assisting their staffs in improving the quality of instruction.

8. "Administrative organization must be flexible and relatively unstructured so that each administrator can cope with the informal power structure of his community."

Staff Comment -- In low economic communities, especially, there is a tendency for a power structure composed of a relatively few persons to develop and insidiously pervade the school. This is a traditional condition in this region of Kentucky, where a kind of constant, yet publicly unacknowledged struggle between school officials and would-be political figures is carried on. The most obvious sign that this battle is being waged is exhibited in the election of school board members where the in-fighting can become vicious and open. Under such conditions it is not unusual to find that the school system functions in an informal manner, enabling the administrator to modify his actions in keeping with current pressures. This concept of informality of administrative structure seemed to be prevalent in all four of the school districts.

During the project, some change in this concept was apparent, at least at the verbal level. However, as already reported, two of the districts wrote job descriptions which will inevitably bring about a tighter and more pronounced administrative structure.

9. "The administrator should communicate to the community, but should not involve the community to any great extent in developing school programs."

Staff Comment -- The reluctance of administrators in involving their communities in developing or improving the schools' instructional program probably stems from such beliefs as: (1) people in this region cannot contribute, other than financially, to such a complex and difficult undertaking; and (2) people will not willingly give of their time to participate.

During this project, the first belief was modified in two of the districts where school patrons were able to make rather significant contributions. The second belief was changed in all the districts with the quite startling participation of people in the Headstart Program.

Changes in Administrative Procedures

The determination of changes in the procedures used by the administrators was made almost entirely through staff observations and interviews. It was recognized by the staff that the time span of the project was insufficient to even hope for greatly significant procedural modifications. What was hoped for was evidence that some changes were envisioned and efforts begun to implement them.. Some changes did indeed occur, however, and these are discussed on the following pages.

Instructional Program Procedures

1. In all the districts, administrative efforts were exerted to develop more clarity concerning instructional goals. The increased frequency of faculty meetings, district-wide conferences, and teacher-administrator conferences provided a format in which such effort could be implemented.
2. A nucleus of administrators began to work with their staffs to generate enthusiasm and methods for the development of innovations in school programs. For example, one supervisor was able to initiate a developmental reading program in some schools of that district. Six principals were successful in revamping their mathematics program in keeping with new developments in this field. One principal instituted an art program for the first time in his school.
3. There was also some evidence to suggest that some of the administrators were learning ways of providing leadership for evaluating the adequacy of instruction. For example, from an almost total lack of faculty meetings to discuss their instructional progam, strengths and shortcomings, the number of such meetings increased dramatically in two districts. In one of these two districts, a procedure, including an objective instrument, was developed to evaluate the instructional performance of teachers. In all of the districts, the administrators found ways of increasing the tempo of assessing their instructional programs either through conferences, instrumentation, or research. It was apparent to the staff that these persons were beginning to question whether their programs were geared to the needs of children in this somewhat typical environment. Moreover, they were beginning to find roles for themselves in improving the input-output ratio of instruction.

4. Some change occurred in administrative procedures for acquiring, developing and using instructional materials and resources. In all of the districts efforts were made to establish procedures for assessing needs and writing proposals for securing materials and resources under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. The development of team effort, including the delineation of individual responsibilities, in this instance can be directly attributed to the influence of the project. Never before had they developed such refined procedures for working on a common program.

School Organization Procedures

1. In two of the four districts there was some evidence to suggest that the administrators provided leadership for reorganizing schools to better individualize instruction. One school program was radically reorganized to develop an ungraded primary department and team teaching at the intermediate grade level. Another school began an ungraded primary program.
2. There was slight to considerable increase in the number of scheduled faculty meetings in the school of the four districts. Two districts seem to have had only slight increase in frequency, while the remaining two increased significantly. In all instances this required some major effort because faculty meetings were not highly regarded by teachers in these districts.
3. There was considerable change in the amount of time for instructional supervision expended by principals. Though the Kentucky Department of Education regulations require principals to spend at least fifty

per cent of their time supervising instruction, these four districts, as is too often the case, had not previously complied with this regulation if it were literally interpreted. "Supervision" was somewhat loosely interpreted as supervising children in halls and corridors, seeing that the lunchroom was operating smoothly, or supervising children as they were put on or taken off school buses.

During this project there was definite change in the above procedures. Principals began to work more closely with teachers both in and outside classrooms. The logical explanation for this change would appear to be that for the first time some projects of common concern to both principal and teacher were instituted; projects, such as the English improvement effort in one district, that required a rather close working relationship between principal and teacher.

4. Because more time was required for the supervision of instruction, principals in some cases reorganized their procedures in business management. The staff observations concerning this point, however, would seem to indicate that the changes were of a moderate degree, and that much more routine business organization is needed in all four districts.
5. As already reported, two schools in two districts were reorganized somewhat experimentally. One school instituted an ungraded primary program and an intermediate team teaching program (as well as departmentalizing grades seven and eight) while the other school began an ungraded primary program. In both instances, these organizational changes were initiated and implemented by the principals working with teachers. These changes appear to be the most radical ever made in these districts.

Personnel Procedures

1. There was some change in procedures to improve communications among teachers and between teachers and administrators. The bi-weekly administrative meetings served to strengthen communications among administrators. Though most communication between administrator and teacher was oral, the frequency increased significantly because of joint effort on common concerns. The increased number of faculty meetings materially aided in this respect.
2. The administrators in two of the four districts signficantly increased their efforts to provide assistance to individual teachers with instructional problems. In one of these districts a "model" of administrative behavior was studied and used in an experimental manner. This model included:

   (1) Ways of creating or utilizing dissatisfaction as ploys to energize teachers so that they would request assistance. (2) Ways of providing support to a teacher who is dependency oriented. (3) Ways of increasing communication among teachers so that information might be better diffused. (4) Ways of increasing teacher recepetivity to new ideas.
3. Three of the four groups of administrators changed their procedures of providing leadership for in-service teacher education activities. In these districts there was considerable evidence to suggest that: (1) The administrators began to consider, and to function, as if in-service education was a local school need as well as a district program. (2) The administrators recognized responsibilities beyond simply organizing the two day conference which had previously been the primary component

of district in-service programs. (3) The administrators began to actively seek ways of involving teachers in developing plans for in-depth in-service programs. (4) The administrators began to seek out local resources, including themselves, in addition to drawing entirely upon "outside" persons as had previously been the case. (5) They began to more fully appreciate the necessity for and to implement procedures for keeping the in-service program developing on a continuous basis.

4. Two of the four groups initiated procedures to evaluate the performance of personnel. One of these groups developed an instrument for evaluation that was experimentally used during the latter portion of the school year. The other groups worked to develop and recommend to the local board of education generalized job descriptions which might serve as a rationale for evaluation.

Community Relations Procedures

Administrative procedural changes were slight to moderate in this category. In most instances of change, this was in degree rather than in novelty.

1. There was some change in the degree of effort the administrators exerted toward communicating pupil progress and school needs to the community.
2. There was some change in the degree of effort exerted in working with the community in planning and implementing community action program. (Headstart, for example.) One district, though the stimulus was external, developed with the community a program to transport freshmen to a University of Kentucky community college about fifty miles distant.

Management Procedures

Only two observable changes in administrative procedures occurred in relationship to management.

1. There were slight changes in the improvement of auxiliary services such as transportation, health services and lunchrooms.
2. Some change occurred in the reduction of management details to routine, less time consuming proportions. Perhaps this was due to the amount of time deemed necessary for the other project related activities in which they were engaged.

Changes in District Instructional Programs

The ultimate goal and central purpose of school administration is the maintenance and improvement of instructional programs. Therefore, it must be assumed that all activities of the administrators, whether these be securing public support, developing budgets, purchasing materials, working with a staff, or learning how to be better administrators, should be directed toward and focused upon the instructional program. It must also be assumed that the improvement of an instructional program is a relatively slow process, encumbered by the necessity for much cooperative effort, the nostalgia of tradition, and, often, innervating apathy. Against such conditions, the administrator must muster all available resources, his own skills, and the support of others whom he can enlist.

Most administrators appear to have no great difficulty in "maintaining" the quality of their school's instructional programs. For example, when overcrowding of classrooms becomes an obvious fact, it is usually possible to find ways of alleviating this condition: however, if a change is needed in the instructional programs in such classrooms, this presents problems which are both numerous and difficult.

Many research studies have addressed themselves to identifying the "conditioners" of change: what influences are at work to either inhibit or promote change. A comparison of some of these "conditioners" with the four districts produces evidence to more clearly explain why changes in instruction are so slow and difficult in this region. Generally, the following factors contribute to the inducement of change:

1. "Cosmopoliteness" of Professional Staff"

   If a school staff is composed of persons who represent divergent backgrounds in terms of geographic settings in which their professional preparation and experience has been gained, there is a likelihood that this will militate against stagnation of the instructional program.

   This conditioner was not present in these four districts.

2. Insistent Lay Groups

   If a school community is composed of organized groups, or even enough individuals who have well defined positions concerning what the school should or should not do, this ultimately tends to cause enough agreement or disagreement so as to demand change.

   Few evidences of this conditioner were to be found in the four districts.

3. Adequate Communications

   If people communicate, both among themselves and with others outside their immediate peer group, new ideas eventually will be diffused and will tend to induce change.

   Generally, the professional staff of the four districts had few opportunities to develop adequate communication channels.

4. Frequent Use of Outside Agents

   If teachers, even in a somewhat isolated or closed group society, have access to and involvement with "outside agents" such as college professors, consultants, and even other teachers from other school systems, this will tend to induce change.

   Generally, the teachers in these four districts had only a very limited number of opportunities to use such outside agents.

5. Systems of Rewards or Recognition

   If a school district has overt ways of recognizing and rewarding unusual performance, this will tend to cause the emergence of changed performance.

   There was little evidence to indicate that this was operative in the four districts.

6. High level of Expectations Established by the Administrative Authorities

   If the administrators clearly evidence that they expect changes to occur, this will most likely happen.

   The administrators in these four districts, generally failed to do this.

   Teachers might be moved from school to school because of inefficiency, but seldom indeed was one released.

7. Adequate Financial Support

   If adequate finances are available, this will tend to encourage a professional staff toward instructional change. Most changes are either overtly or covertly dependent upon the availability of money.

> These four districts are inadequately supported, which means that a considerable portion of time must be spent by the administrators in trying to "make-do" with what they have, and teachers know without asking that funds are not available for many of their needs.

In the main, then, the instructional changes which occurred in these four districts were accomplished against great odds. It might be said that "change" has a life cycle that begins with incubation of an idea, suffers growing pains during a time of pilot experimentation, and ripens into its prime of impact and effectiveness, then slowly withers away as it is supplanted by a new "change." If this is so, most of the "changes" discussed below are somewhere beyond the incubation stage, but somewhere below their prime impact.

There was observational evidence to indicate that the following instructional changes were made or in the process of being made:

1. The English program in two districts underwent several modifications. In both districts, the recognition that their students were in great need of improvements in speaking, particularly the reduction of the local idiom, brought about the development of an English Guidebook and a list of most frequently mispronounced words. Perhaps this was the greatest instructional change in these districts.
2. The "new mathematics" program, particularly in the elementary schools, of all four districts was introduced and expanded.
3. Two non-graded elementary schools, at the primary level, were initiated.
4. A visiting librarian was added in one district to serve several small schools.

5. A visiting music teacher was employed to assist elementary teachers in one district.
6. There was an increased availability and use of instructional materials.
7. Supervisor-teacher, and principal-teacher working relationships improved with the result that more day by day instructional problems were identified and resolved.
8. The physical education program was improved in one district.
9. There was marked improvement in at least two districts in the coordination of effort to strive for common instructional goals.
10. Instructional goals in several subject matter areas--English, mathematics, social studies, art, music--were clarified.
11. Job clarification of instructional program roles was evident in all four districts.
12. The community was involved to a greater extent in instructional program evaluation and planning.
13. There is considerably more teacher and staff interest in self-growth via in-service education activities. This has resulted in many small, but important changes in the rapport between teachers and students.
14. The success of the "Headstart Program" with pre-school children has resulted in greater emphasis in the first grade concerning the experiential needs of disadvantaged children.

Summary

The preceding data appear to support the conclusion that changes in the job concepts of the administrators, changes in administrative procedures, and changes in the instructional programs of the four districts did indeed occur during the eighteen months of the In-Service Program for Educational Administrators. The community and school conditions described in Chapter II were not necessarily the most favorable for the inducement and support of such change; however, the changes were made, and though they may be characterized more by direction than degree, and in gross rather than specific terms, there does seem to be adequate evidence to suggest that other changes will follow.

The changes for which supportive data have been presented may be summarized:

1. There is a greater understanding of the scope and breadth of school administration and its related problems among the administrators.
2. There is greater clarity of function and role relationships among the administrators than ever before.
3. All district groups seem to have developed a greater awareness of the necessity for organizational structure in school administration.
4. There seems to be an increased awareness of the value of other people in improving the quality of school programs.
5. Administrative procedures were changed toward greater involvement of professional and lay people in improving the school program.
6. There is an increased awareness that the school is an enterprise whose output must be evaluated against its input; that productivity must be actively sought.

7. There is an appreciable understanding of the necessity for overt leadership from the administrator in planning, implementing, and evaluating instructional improvement activities.
8. The administrators are beginning to view their function as leaders in in-service teacher education as a responsibility of major importance.
9. There were at least fourteen major changes in the instructional programs of the four districts.
10. The project has stimulated a reformulation of job concepts, a redefinition of relation to others, and generated an investigation of the schools ultimate purposes.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In retrospect, four staff members, three graduate research associates, and four consultants from the behavioral science disciplines from the University of Kentucky joined sixty-nine school administrators in four Kentucky school districts in an effort to develop procedures whereby a college staff might provide significant assistance in the in-service education of practicing school administrators. During the eighteen months of the developmental research project, numerous procedures, both pre-determined and developed, were employed and evaluated. Chapter III described these procedures in gross terms; Chapter IV discussed the evaluation process and the changes which occurred in the administrators and their procedures during the project; this chapter will discuss the conclusions which have been drawn from this total effort and project recommendations for others who might be concerned with this important and crucial educational area.

It should be noted that the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (Public Law 89-10) was enacted during the latter portion of this project. The availability of extra-mural funds drastically altered certain conditions under which local administrators functioned and thereby resulted in radical shifts in their concerns and interests. Subsequently, the roles, activities and procedures of the project staff were modified to accommodate these changes thereby influencing the outcome of this endeavor.

It should also be noted that during the twelfth month of operation, one of the project's four staff members was lost through a sudden fatal illness. The loss of this invaluable colleague resulted not only in a realignment of staff assignments but also the loss of the wealth of experiences he had developed in the district for which he was responsible.

General Conclusions

Like any research endeavor, this project set forth its undergirding assumptions in its initial proposal. Consequently, this endeavor sought to focus upon the development and validation of in-service education procedures consistent with such assumptions. It was thought that the efforts to assess such procedures would yield data and experiences to support or question such assumptions. Therefore, from such data, supported by the staff's observations and experiences, the following general positive conclusions seem warranted:

1. The local school or school district provides an unique laboratory for developing programs of professional growth for practicing school administrators. In such a laboratory there are always foci of interest or concern engendered by local problems and conditions which necessitate unique in-service education programming for administrators. Thus the local environment does offer a type of laboratory in which realistic and productive activities can be developed to extend the knowledge and understandings of school administrators.

2. The development of an administrative team within a school district is a significant factor if a college staff is to provide assistance in local activities from which school administrators can abstract "learnings" and thus grow professionally. The delineation of functions and roles among the various administrative positions, for example, is a virtual necessity if the full potential of available talent is to be exploited. Equally, recognition that most educational problems are too complex for one individual to resolve, the utilization of an administrative team would appear to be a highly desirable and productive aspect of the in-service education of administrators.

3. The problem solving approach -- identifying and attacking local educational problems -- provides an appropriate and productive avenue whereby a college staff can assist administrators in growing professionally. The function of the college staff, however, is not only to participate in such problem solving ventures, but also to help the administrators abstract personal "learnings" from such ventures.

4. The utilization of a college team of specialists is a more efficacious procedure for providing in-service education for administrators than the assignment of one college staff member to this task. Specialists in administration, in-service education, sociology, psychology, anthro-

pology, political science, and related disciplines are useful resources in assisting local administrators to perform more adequately.

5. Participation in such a developmental research project provides unique learning opportunities for graduate students preparing to become school administrators. Not only does such participation acquaint students with the realities of administration, it also enables them to relate the theory and practice of administration into meaningful patterns and perspectives.

Attendant to the above conclusions, however, are the following limitations which to these writers are of major import:

1. While the local school or school district offers a unique laboratory, its full exploitation of such for the in-service education of school administrators is extremely expensive in terms of both college staff time and financial expense.
2. While development of an administrative team is an essential ingredient of an effective school operation and while such a team simulates a "class" or reference group for in-service education, there appears to be a limit to which such "development" can be pursued profitably. Beyond a point such a "team" would assume responsibility for its own development as it pursues its own concerns.
3. A college team of inter-disciplinary specialists to be sure can become an effective team. However, it takes a lengthy period of time for such to clarify responsibilities and roles. To be productive in short-range operations, the permanent staff can probably best use the sociologists, anthropologists, political scientist and social psychologists on a consultant basis calling them in for highly specific purposes.
4. As a preparational experience for advanced graduate students, such an endeavor would be more productive if: (a) such students spent one semester full time in such an enterprise or (b) such students' schedules could be arranged for them to have at least two consecutive days a week free from other campus responsibilities. Field work is time consuming and should not be competitive with formal classes on campus.
5. Change induced through a developmental educative process is extremely slow. Fully employed participants owe their primary allegiance to the responsibilities of their jobs. Consequently, "learning activities" over and beyond such jobs take low priority in their value systems. Therefore, developmental changes are likely to be relegated low priority in the choice of time and effort expenditure in school districts such as those included in this project.

6. Members of this project's staff are more convinced than ever, both by the research data and their experiences in the project, that the in-service growth of school administrators is a prerequisite to significant educational change in these types of school districts. Each administrator was obviously doing the best that he could in light of his perceptions. Until he is able to discharge his responsibilities more efficiently, effectively, and imaginatively there seems little hope for significant change in such rural, culturally deprived, and economically depressed schools.

Conclusions Concerning Changes in Administrators' Concepts and Performance

Chapter IV described the specific changes in concepts and performance of the administrators who participated in this project. Based upon these changes, certain conclusions would appear to be appropriate. Because these conclusions were derived from the specific parameters of this particular project, caution should be exercised in assuming that similar outcomes would necessarily result from a replication of the project in any given environment. This report, however, has described the setting of the project, the conditions operative in that setting, and the personnel who participated; therefore, a contextual background has been presented as a rationale for the following conclusions. If replication of any phase of this project is to be attempted and similar changes and conclusions anticipated, the contextual background should be somewhat similar to that in which this project operated.

The following enumerated statements are in part a reiteration of changes which were indicated by the data in Chapter IV; yet, in toto they represent staff conclusions about the most important changes that occured in the administrators' concepts and performance during the brief span of the project.

1. Most of the administrators developed a broader perspective of school administration as a result of participation in this project.

2. There was an increased awareness of the necessity for organizational structure in administration, and increased skills in erecting this structure in terms of the purposes of education, staff roles, community needs, utilization of resources, and educational outputs.

3. The administrators, as a group, increased their skill in defining and delineating appropriate and productive roles for members of the leadership group.

4. There was greater recognition of the importance of people in improving the quality of education. This recognition extended to include awareness that personnel performance can be improved through carefully designed programs of evaluation and of in-service education.

5. There was a similar increase in awareness of other people--parents, teachers, college personnel, etcetera--in improving the quality of school programs.

6. As a group, the administrators became more problem-solving oriented. That is they became somewhat more concerned about indentifying and attacking problems as a primary operational procedure in administration.

7. There was a greater concern over the identification of the specific outputs of the school; therefore, they became somewhat more goal-oriented.

8. The participating administrators extended their understandings of the necessity for adequate and competent leadership and, therefore, to a degree became more aware of their own deficiencies and strengths in providing such leadership. However, more significantly, the administrators began to assume more active leadership roles.

Circumscribing the above conclusions are certain limiting factors which are here reported as additional conclusions:

1. It takes a time for significant change to occur in administrators and their procedures. The time limitations of this project precluded full assessment of the impact the project had and will have on the participants and their administrative procedures.

2. Some few participants were, from the beginning, not seriously committed to the project. The greatest change occurred in those persons whom the staff identified as "committed." Consequently, such a venture with a staff such as this one, will be successful only to the extent of the commitment of the participants.

3. There appears to be something of a danger in assisting persons--individuals or groups--to become aware of deficiencies in existing

administrative organizational structure and operational procedures unless the dissatisfaction agent is able to suggest practical means for resolving the situation. Dissatisfactions-awareness of inadequacies-which lie beyond the scope of satisfaction lead to frustrations which in turn result in a complete resignation from any attempt to alter any of the conditions which support the present situation.

4. While many changes were apparent statistically and observationally, it is possible that they were halo effects from the staff's presence and expectations. It remains to be seen whether or not these initial beginnings of change survive and grow after the staff has withdrawn for a period of time.

Conclusions Concerning Staff Procedures

The staff is cognizant of the difficulty of describing an operational procedure with enough specificity to insure its replicability. A procedure is conditioned by innumerable tangible and intangible human and situational variables. Its replicability lies in the similarity between sets of conditions operative in each of two or more situations. Thus procedure has here been treated in inexact, general terms to include its distinguishing essential elements, yet to include other human and environmental variables operative when the procedure was employed and validated. The reader, therefore, is cautioned to exercise judgment in attempting to replicate those procedures described in Chapter III and is encouraged to use them only as guides to specific actions appropriate to the interplay of those variables operative in his immediate situation.

From this project, the following are offered as the conclusions drawn by this staff relative to those procedures described in general terms in Chapter III.

1. Constant focus upon the problem solving technique enabled the staff to penetrate these relatively closed educational systems. Concentrat-

ing upon the cooperative development of solutions to local problems which were obvious and perplexing to administrators enabled the staff to move from the status of "outsiders" to that of "insiders."

Used as a vehicle, the problem-solving technique removed the "onous" of the staff's expertise and communicated its willingness to learn with the local administrators as they worked together on the resolution of local problems.

2. The ready availability of the project staff to the administrators was a crucial factor in this project. Inasmuch as each staff member could spend two or more full days each week in his assigned school district, and since he was on call whenever the need arose, a measure of support was provided the administrators as they struggled to initiate changes in their districts.

3. The bi-weekly work sessions of each district team provided an organizational structure which facilitated a climate conducive to attacking problems that a single administrator would have avoided. These sessions apparently did more than anything else to weld the various administrators into a cohesive team.

4. The individual contacts between an administrator and a staff member provided invaluable opportunities for the staff member to become better informed about local conditions, listen to special problems, provide encouragement, assist in accomplishing the administrator's assignments from his team, and help to implement local programs. These contacts enabled the staff member to personalize his efforts for the professional growth of each of the administrators.

5. The "development of materials ploy" was effectively used to maintain a high interest level in an activity and to serve as a product goal for effort. The failure to "follow through" on programs was a plaguing characteristic of these districts; therefore, the staff deliberately sought to overcome this by having each activity carry with it the development of something written: a "guide" as a part of English improvement, written job descriptions as a part of role definition, or a written instrument as a part of teacher evaluation. This technique helped to insure against the untimely demise of an activity, and tended to give the administrators a sense of accomplishment from their efforts.

6. The conferences in which the administrators of all four districts were brought together for sharing progress and planning were quite effective. These sessions were probably more theraputic than informational for each team seemed to develop a mild competitive spirit as they weighed what they were doing against what the other teams were accomplishing. A kind of pride in accomplishment manifested itself during each of these meetings, and the staff noticed a renewed vigor and effort when the teams returned to their respective disticts.

7. One such conference, however, proved to be an exception to the above conclusion. This session was used by the staff to lecture on school administration in an effort to give the administrators a broader perspective of administration. Subsequent analysis indicated that little had been gained by this "telling" approach. Each person had listened or not listened according to his own real and immediate concerns. Few were receptive to the deluge of information presented. Therefore, an implementing staff should strive to insure that similar large group meetings have realistic goals attuned to the perceived needs of the participants. Furthermore, "telling" as a procedure is effective only on rare occasions and these usually occur only as the result of a direct question.

8. The task of relating a problem solving effort to the broader structure of school administration so that the participants could abstract learnings for future efforts proved to be more formidable than anticipated. Most administrators functioning under such unfavorable conditions can ill afford to take time away from their real problems to study about administration in the abstract; therefore, better procedures for relating the outcomes of problem solving activities to the broader spectrum of administration are urgently needed. The ill-fated information clinic described above was one procedure the staff had devised to accomplish this task. The staff must therefore conclude that more efficacious procedures are in need of development.

9. While the use of interdisciplinary consultants as a part of the staff team did result in some desirable gains, these persons were used primarily to assist the staff and had too few opportunities to relate to and assist the administrators. The special skills and understandings possessed by such persons could have been much more effectively employed in analyzing the school communities, designing the research procedures, and in working with individuals and groups of administrators.

10. Formalized problem solving techniques are less appropriate in working with teams in their districts than informal techniques which include the essential elements of problem solving methodology but may vary in sequence, or may be somewhat less than completely thorough in terms of collection data. This is to say that real problems, attacked by persons who are under operational pressures, and under conditions that are usually unfavorable, will seldom be resolved in an orderly, lockstep or complete manner. Customarily, such problem solving effort will tend to attenuate once the problem has been resolved enough to relieve external pressures.

11. The diversity of the college staff has both advantages and disadvantages. While it is obvious that persons with specific special competencies are necessary in the formation of a staff team, the perspective each of these individuals brings to the team can also have an inhibiting effect upon the productivity of that team. Cooperative interdisciplinary effort is more difficult than is usually anticipated. Because of the

nature of its function, a staff team is probably more difficult to develop than is a local administrative team. However, the success of such an enterprise is totally dependent upon the ability of this team to supplement and complement each other effectively in the pursuit of common goals.

12. The college staff team must exercise judicious influence in helping the administrative team identify problems for attack. If in-service education of the administrators is the chief goal of the college staff, with local educational improvement a secondary objective, the type of problems chosen for attack is critical. Certain types of problems lend themselves well to in-service education while others are totally inappropriate. The determination of which are and those which are not potential vehicles for in-service education is dependent upon situational circumstances and staff ingenuity.

13. In this project the specific problems each district elected to attack were problems which called for little community participation, and which, when analyzed, seem to offer little threat to any community group or segment of the power structure in the community. It must be concluded that covert influences in such communities exert considerable power upon the behavior of school administrators.

14. Educational change is an extremely delicate and slow process in school communities such as those included in the project. Though Chapter IV enumerated many changes that took place during the eighteen months of this project, these changes were not revolutionary nor cause for excessive jubilation. Until the educational leadership is provided some of the fundamental resources for building better school programs, and until it learns to handle such new-found resources, the progress of the schools in this region will necessarily be relatively slow-paced. Fortunately, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 is beginning to provide some assistance in this direction. Whether the leadership can rapidly equip itself to make the most of this assistance remains to be seen.

Recommendations

The staff members of this project are convinced, both by research data and by experience, that in-service growth of school administrators is a requisite for effective educational change in the schools of America. The current faith that increased resources--money, materials, equipment, facilities--will in themselves lift the quality of education to optimum levels is but a reflection of the great need for additional resources and will be somewhat altered as such resources become available. Increasingly, attention and hope will turn to the provision of adequate programs in which administrators, teachers, and other school personnel are assisted in professional growth so that they can use these resources wisely and productively, for there is substantial evidence that indicates that new buildings, new materials, or new curriculum programs will never obviate the absolute necessity for knowledgeable, skilled, competent personnel to manipulate and manage these innovations. Indeed, it may be said that innovations can never be divorced from people. It is in the minds of people that innovative ideas are generated, and in the skills of people that innovations are implemented.

Thus, as an outgrowth of experience in this project, the staff strongly recommends that further experimentation in in-service education be initiated. Though this project was concerned with the in-service education of school administrators, much broader projects should be implemented to assist all school personnel. While leadership teams are vital in inducing innovation, teamwork of a larger segment of school and community persons is even more essential.

The nation's colleges are uniquely equipped by tradition and staff to play an important role in establishing these new in-service education programs. Likewise, they are compelled to continue to fulfill their accepted responsibility for the preparation of professional school personnel by extending their efforts beyond mere pre-service programming. This will call for considerably more research and experimentation on efficient and productive procedures to accomplish this task.

This project has been but one minor cooperative effort of a college and school districts to find more adequate ways whereby a college staff might fulfill its total responsibility in teacher education. Such an endeavor is exceedingly complex; however, it was slightly narrowed by focusing upon the in-service education of administrators. But, because of this complexity, the project's outcomes may prove to be relatively insignificant; however, it has represented a first step toward a significant goal.

Thus, as an outgrowth of experiences in this project, the staff offers the following recommendations:

1. The initiation of a series of studies designed to hold certain variables relatively constant while experimenting with a series of single variables. For example, by identifying a number of matched school districts and by employing common research procedures, the same or matched college teams might vary their procedures to determine which seems most effective and efficient. For example, one college team could continue the procedures reported in this project; another might conduct a traveling seminar to include visits to outstanding schools and school districts; a third might offer an extensive course or courses; a fourth might conduct a series of intensive clinics; and a fifth might do nothing but collect the requisite data on its matched school district.
2. The use of the Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act as an extremely potential avenue through which the Supplementary Educational Centers could make specialized resources available to school districts. For example, such Centers could provide specialists - not unlike this project's staff - to develop and staff an in-service education program for cooperating school districts' administrators and staffs.
3. The initiation of a series of developmental studies which attempt to develop a systems model for treating schools and school districts as social systems. For example, these four districts in this study are semi-classical examples of closed societies. To develop an effective systems model for such districts would enable one to make more accurate predictions of the outcomes accruing from the introduction of a range of variable factors. Thus planned educational change might move to a higher level of sophistication.

APPENDIX A

Items Comprising The Problems Identification Instrument

Name	Position	School District	Date

I. Instructional Program

List the problems you have in developing and implementing the instructional program in your school (s). BE AS SPECIFIC AS YOU CAN AND ARRANGE THESE PROBLEMS IN ORDER OF DIFFICULTY.

II. School Organization

List the problems you have in the organization of your school or in the organization of your school district. Include those problems associated with the school structure, the assignment of responsibilities and authority. BE SPECIFIC AND ARRANGE THESE PROBLEMS IN ORDER OF DIFFICULTY.

III. Personnel

List the problems you have in relationship to the personnel with whom you work. Include those problems associated with selection, performance and inservice education. BE SPECIFIC AND ARRANGE THESE PROBLEMS IN ORDER OF DIFFICULTY.

IV. Community Relations

List the problems you have in relationship to your community. Include those problems associated with obtaining community support and in informing the community about the school. BE SPECIFIC AND ARRANGE THESE PROBLEMS IN ORDER OF DIFFICULTY.

V. School Management

List the problems you have in managing your school (s). Include those problems associated with buildings and facilities, school finance, and handling the "details" of everyday school management. BE SPECIFIC AND ARRANGE THESE PROBLEMS IN ORDER OF DIFFICULTY.

APPENDIX B

Items Comprising The Job Description Form

Name____________________ **Exact Title of Position**____________________

____

Responsible to:____________

I. Areas of school operation in which you have responsibilities:

II. Specific nature of responsibility in each area:

APPENDIX C

Items Comprising The Leadership Q-Sort[1]

1. Does not always feel responsible for answering questions directed at him.
2. Tries to restrict highly verbal members who "drown out" less vociferous members.
3. Does not feel uncomfortable when group wanders from agenda.
4. Keeps a certain amount of distance between himself and group members in order to be most effective as a leader.
5. Lets group members encroach upon his functions.
6. Skillfully draws out non-participants by asking them questions.
7. Often lets an inaccuarte statement go by unchallenged.
8. Raises questions when discussion lags.
9. Brings his feelings out in front of the group when he is irritated or angry.
10. Adjusts pace of learning to the readiness of its members.
11. Helps group to relate comments of group members to the central stream of thought of the group.
12. Diagnoses group's needs as a guide for his action.
13. Helps group understand what a particular person is saying.
14. Takes responsibility to inform group when it strays from the topic or goes off on tangents.
15. Participates in defining tasks, and goals.
16. May on occasion use his prestige to get the group to accept what is right.
17. Does not make any effort to keep strong feelings out of an intellectual discussion.
18. Is sensitive in recognizing irrelevant contributions of members.
19. Does not follow a consistent procedural pattern of group operation (e.g., parliamentary procedure.)
20. Tactfully discourages the "blocker."
21. Feels need to respond to almost every contribution, even those that are not particularly helpful.
22. Tries to state his opinions so that group will feel he is neutral.
23. Does not take responsibility for restricting participation of members who monopolize discussions.
24. Makes certain that discussion will occur by asking individuals beforehand to raise questions.
25. Rarely conveys his diagnoses of the group.
26. Clarifies member's statements but doesn't add ideas of his own to the discussion.
27. Withholds his evaluations from the group while he has leadership status.

---

[1] Applying the Q-Technique as devised by William Stephenson and reported in, The Study of Behavior: Q-Technique and Its Methodology (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953), Thomas Gordon reports this Leadership Q-Sort in Group Centered Leadership (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955).

APPENDIX C (continued)

28. Successfully prevents feelings of rivalry, hostility, resentment and the like, from being expressed in the group.
29. Speaks clearly and convincingly.
30. Believes people can become more self-responsible.
31. Acts on behalf of the group.
32. Feels he must set a high moral example.
33. Helps group evaluate its progress.
34. Feels that everyone ought to talk in a meeting.
35. Defends position vigorously on occasion.
36. Feels superior to group members because of superior training and experience.
37. Is sensitive to the desires of the group.
38. Feels he can learn things from the group.
39. Knows what roles the group needs for effective operation.
40. Believes that productivity depends upon each man's own decisive activity.
41. Is concerned to make every member feel "at home" and belong to the group.
42. Feels the most effective learning is through participation.
43. Is very much aware of the members of a group who have power and those who don't.
44. Feels more responsibility than most group members.
45. Gives considerable attention to development of all group members into some form of participation.
46. Believes he must be a symbol for the group.
47. Lets other members of the group answer group questions.
48. Believes groups are more effective working with some plan.
49. Defends his own position, but does not insist upon the group's following him.
50. Has opinions as to where the group should arrive.
51. Is dynamic and forceful.
52. Has the interest of the group at heart.
53. Knows more than any of the group members about the subject at hand.
54. Feels group members are capable of change.
55. Acts occasionally as an organizing influence and local point for group activity.
56. Believes he should be an inspiration to other group members.
57. Feels that attacks on his leadership are to be accepted as much as any other feelings.
58. Believes people are generally unmotivated and need inspiration from outside themselves.
59. Believes group will more easily accept or reject his suggestions when he is not seen as "the leader."
60. Believes immature groups need to be first dependent in order to achieve independence.
61. Believes in the inherent goodness of man.
62. Holds to a philosophy which recognizes man's basic anti-social and ego-centered tendencies.

APPENDIX C (continued)

63. Believes to be most effective, a leader must lose his leadership position.
64. Feels he must try to keep the group from taking some kinds of action.
65. Believes "immature" groups need to feel freedom from the influence of authority figures.
66. Believes the leader always should be seen by the group as having more status or ability than the members.
67. Believes the group should be aware of leader's own inadequacies, though it may mean he loses prestige.
68. Feels leader loses prestige when he admits his lack of knowledge.
69. Feels that a decision arrived at by all group members is usually the best decision for the total group.
70. Knows how far he is willing to go along with the group on some things.
71. Hopes group will eventually forget he was "the leader."
72. Feels persons are uncomfortable and ineffective without a leader.
73. Is willing to have the members take over leadership of the group.
74. Feels group often needs leader's influence to bring about the best solutions.
75. Is willing to help carry out group decisions which he considers unwise.
76. Feels the group objective takes precedence over the growth and development of the individual group member.
77. Feels his task is to reduce dependency of members upon himself.
78. Believes those less educated and informed often have to be led by those more able to point the way.
79. Feels the leader must become more and more accepted as just another group member.
80. Believes the group can be helped the most if the leader takes initial responsibility for setting goals and content.
81. Feels the group has the capacity to solve its own problems, provided each member feels free to give of himself.
82. Believes individuals are capable of change but often lack insight to change themselves without outside help.
83. Feels leader always ought to trust the potentialities within the group.
84. Feels most groups need the guidance and direction of a skilled leader.

Items Comprising The Purposes of Education Q-Sort[2]

1. Develop capacity to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.
2. Develop individual as an asset to the social group.
3. Train for citizenship.
4. Develop abilities.
5. Provide knowledge for intelligent consumership.
6. Cultivate intellectual honesty.
7. Integrate the mind.
8. Stimulate devotion to our way of life.
9. Develop individual for fullest participation in American democracy.
10. Cultivate inquiring mind.
11. Develop understanding of rights and duties of citizenship.
12. Encourage friendships.
13. Draw out the timeless elements of our common human nature.
14. Improve human nature.
15. Enable individual to live a happy life.
16. Provide capacity for further education.
17. Provide growth.
18. Develop understanding of significance of the family.
19. Develop ability to express thoughts clearly.
20. Develop economic competency.
21. Promote law observance.
22. Build civilization.
23. Develop well-adjusted people.
24. Stimulate faith in our form of government.
25. Produce academic literacy.
26. Provide vocational guidance.
27. Train the mind.
28. Learn to apply scientific method to all problems.
29. Foster healthy attitude toward sex relations.
30. Produce a uniform product.
31. Emphasize values.
32. Teach eternal verities, truths, and ideals.
33. Extend our limited vision of truth.
34. Cultivate the love of truth.
35. Produce sound character.
36. Form good moral habits.
37. Connect the present with the past.
38. Promote knowledge of the moral law.
39. Train the sense of duty.
40. Cultivate spiritual competency.

---

[2] Russell L. Renz, "Self Directed Learning for Educational Leadership," Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XXXI, No. 1, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, September, 1958.

APPENDIX D (continued)

41. Impel conviction that religion has a place in the life of every individual.
42. Develop ability to think rationally.
43. Develop ability to understand what one reads and hears.
44. Cultivate wisdom.
45. Develop right attitudes.
46. Teach respect for authority.
47. Increase mental power.
48. Provide maximum opportunity for exploration of one's total environment.
49. Discipline the will.
50. Adjust individual to social change.
51. Encourage tolerance.
52. Train the faculties of the mind.
53. Discipline the mind.
54. Develop sense of world citizenship.
55. Encourage critical judgment.
56. Cultivate moral qualities.
57. Optimal physical and mental health.
58. Encourage creativity.
59. Develop native talents.
60. Develop the individual naturally.
61. Achieve internal control in place of external or coercive control
62. Develop initiative.
63. Develop independent intellectual, esthetic, and practical interests.
64. Enable one to advance socially.
65. Train the moral judgment.
66. Develop individual to his highest capacities.
67. Prepare for the good life.
68. Develop relective thinking.
69. Mastery of the 3 R's.
70. Reinterpret social ideals and aims.
71. Reconstruct society.
72. Optimal development of human personality.
73. Help individual recognize and understand the operation of natural laws in his environment.
74. Modify ideals, values, and goals of society.
75. Improve social practices.
76. Develop a consistent unified everchanging design for living.
77. Encourage consistency of belief.
78. Enable people to solve problems.
79. Cultivate a common point of view.
80. Improve human personality.
81. Establish appropriate responses by developing neutral bonds between stimuli and responses.
82. Advance good use of leisure time.
83. Provide for unfolding of latent powers toward perfection.
84. Strive for immediate results.
85. Acquire specific habits for future needs.

APPENDIX D (continued)

86. Prepare for adult life.
87. Prepare for daily living.
88. Store the memory with important facts.
89. Learn specific subjects.
90. Increase the sum of knowledge.
91. Acquire knowledge.
92. Provide opportunity to develop leadership.
93. Transmit cultural heritage.
94. Maintain tradition.
95. Provide directed experience in group living.
96. Conserve culture intact.
97. Improvement of the common life.
98. Develop civic competency.
99. Prepare for the common life.
100. Develop respect for humanity.

APPENDIX E

Interview Guide[3]

The Critical Tasks of School Administration as developed by the Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration was adapted to form an interview guide. Each respondent was asked to describe how the school system was organized and proceeded to achieve each task.

Following is the listing of Critical Tasks:

I. INSTRUCTION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

  A. To Provide for the Formulation of Curriculum Objectives
  B. To Provide for the Determination of Curriculum Content and Organization
  C. To Relate the Desired Curriculum to Available Time, Physical Facilities, and Personnel
  D. To Provide Materials, Resources, and Equipment for the Instructional Program
  E. To Provide for the Supervision of Instruction
  F. To Provide for In-Service Education of Instructional Personnel

II. PUPIL PERSONNEL

  A. To Initiate and Maintain a System of Child Accounting and Attendance
  B. To Institute Measures for the Orientation of Pupils
  C. To Provide Counseling Services
  D. To Provide Health Services
  E. To Provide for Individual Inventory Service
  F. To Provide Occupational and Educational Information Services
  G. To Provide Placement and Follow-up Services for Pupils

---

[3] Adapted from: Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, Better Teaching In School Administration, 1955, pp. 124-177.

APPENDIX E (continued)

- H. To Arrange Systematic Procedures for the Continual Assessment and Interpretation of Pupil Growth (Social Behavior, Academic Progress, Physical and Emotional Development, etc.)
- I. To Establish Means of Dealing with Pupil Irregularities (Critical Disciplinary Problems, Truancy, etc.)
- J. To Develop and Coordinate Pupil Activity Programs

III. COMMUNITY - SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

- A. To Help Provide an Opportunity for a Community to Recognize its Composition (Formal and Informal Groups, Population Characteristics, Socio-Economic Trends, Economic Base, Power Structure) and Understand its Present Social Policy (Directions, Beliefs, Aims, Objectives, Operating Procedures)
- B. To Assist a Community to Identify Its Potential for Improvement Through The Use of Natural and Human Resources (Climate, Topography, Number of People, Channels of Communication, Social Agencies, Institutions, Values, and Beliefs)
- C. To Determine the Educational Services (Including Curriculum, Teacher Activities, etc.) the School Renders and How Such Services Are Conditioned By Community Forces
- D. To Help to Develop and Implement Plans for the Improvement of Community Life (Amelioration of Race Tensions, Improving Equal Opportunities, Reducing Delinquency, Better Recreational Facilities, etc.)
- E. To Determine and Render Services Which the School Can Best Provide in Community Improvement With and Through the Cooperation of Other Agencies
- F. To Make Possible the Continual Reexamination of Accepted Plans and Policies for Community Improvement with Particular Reference to the Services Which the Schools Are Rendering

APPENDIX E (continued)

IV. STAFF PERSONNEL

- A. To Provide for the Formulation of Staff Personnel Policies
- B. To Provide for the Recruitment of Staff Personnel
- C. To Select and Assign Staff Personnel
- D. To Promote the General Welfare of the Staff (Tenure, Retirement, Insurance, Sick Leave, Living Conditions, Morale, etc.)
- E. To Develop a System of Staff Personnel Records
- F. To Stimulate and Provide Opportunities for Professional Growth of Staff Personnel

V. SCHOOL PLANT

- A. To Determine the Physical Plant Needs of the Community and the Resources Which Can be Marshalled to Meet Those Needs
- B. To Develop a Comprehensive Plan for the Orderly Growth and Improvement of School Plant Facilities
- C. To Initiate and Implement Plans for the Orderly Growth and Improvement of School Plant Facilities
- D. To Develop an Efficient Program of Operation and Maintenance of the Physical Plant

VI. SCHOOL TRANSPORTATION

- A. To Determine School Transportation Needs and Conditions (Roads, Location of Schools, etc.) Under Which Transportation Services Must Be Rendered
- B. To Procure Equipment and Supplies Through Approved Methods of Purchase and Contract
- C. To Organize and Provide an Efficient System of School Transportation Maintenance

APPENDIX E (continued)

- D. To Provide for the Safety of Pupils, Personnel, and Equipment
- E. To Develop an Understanding and Use of the Legal Provisions Under Which the Transportation System Operates

VII. ORGANIZATION AND STRUCTURE

- A. To Establish Working Relationships with Local, State and Federal Agencies to Provide Services Needed by the School System
- B. To Work with the Board of Education in the Formulation of Public School Policy and Plans
- C. To Designate Appropriate Operational Units within the School System (Including Sizes of Schools by Grades, Attendance Areas, etc.)
- D. To Develop a Staff Organization as a Means of Implementing the Educational Planning and Other Educational Activities
- E. To Organize Lay and Professional Groups for Participation in Educational Planning and Other Educational Activities

VIII. SCHOOL FINANCE AND BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

- A. To Organize the Business Staff
- B. To Determine Sources of School Revenues
- C. To Formulate a Salary Schedule
- D. To Prepare the School Budget
- E. To Administer Capital Outlay and Debt Service
- F. To Administer School Purchasing
- G. To Account for School Monies
- H. To Account for School Property (Buildings, Equipment, Buses, etc.)
- I. To Provide for a School Insurance Program
- J. To Provide a System of Internal Accounting